

# Linguistically Diverse Students and Special Education: A Mixed Methods Study of Teachers' Attitudes, Coursework, and Practice

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# BOSTON COLLEGE

## Lynch School of Education

Department of Teacher Education, Special Education, and  
Curriculum and Instruction

Program of Curriculum and Instruction

### LINGUISTICALLY DIVERSE STUDENTS AND SPECIAL EDUCATION: A MIXED METHODS STUDY OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDES, COURSEWORK, AND PRACTICE

Dissertation  
by

RENÉE A. GREENFIELD

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## ABSTRACT

LINGUISTICALLY DIVERSE STUDENTS AND SPECIAL EDUCATION:  
A MIXED METHODS STUDY OF TEACHERS'  
ATTITUDES, COURSEWORK, AND PRACTICE

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While the number of linguistically diverse students (LDS) grows steadily in the U.S., schools, research and practice to support their education lag behind (Lucas & Grinberg, 2008). Research that describes the attitudes and practices of teachers who serve LDS and how those attitudes and practice intersect with language and special education is limited (Klingner & Artiles, 2006). Despite varied teacher preparation coursework, all teachers are expected to educate LDS; therefore, it was essential for this study to investigate teachers' attitudes, coursework, and decision-making practices for and about LDS.

Using a sequential explanatory research design (Creswell et al., 2003; Creswell, 2009), this study examines the language attitudes and coursework histories of sixty-nine inservice teachers. A subsample of nine teachers participated in an interview and responded to a case study dilemma about a LDS who struggled academically. Quantitative analyses reveal that teachers who completed language coursework reported strong positive language attitudes, compared to teachers without this coursework. Qualitative analyses, however, demonstrate a range of teachers' reflective judgment and desirable practices. Collective analyses of data indicate that teachers' positive language attitudes are predictive of desirable practices. Further, the interactions between teachers' reported knowledge, attitudes, and practice in two domains – language and special

education – inform teachers’ professional practice. Findings also indicate that teachers’ professional practice, including collaboration, reflection, decision making, problem solving, and professional development, vary based on teachers’ understanding of and attitudes about policy, assessment, and instructional practices. Most importantly, findings suggest that teachers’ actual professional practice is inextricably linked to and contextualized in classroom, school, and/or district structures.

To my impassioned and amazing friend,

Amy Lynn Niebling

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## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate how elementary teacher education graduates' attitudes, coursework, and practice inform their practices for linguistically diverse students (LDS) in their elementary classrooms. The demographics of elementary classrooms are changing, both culturally and linguistically, and LDS continue to be poorly served in public schools (Harry & Klingner, 2007). Since it is well documented that students who have limited proficiency in English are at the highest risk for school failure (August & Hakuta, 1997; Donovan & Cross, 2002; Klingner, Artiles, & Barletta, 2006; Lesaux, 2006; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998), it is essential to examine the attitudes, teacher education coursework, and decision-making practices of teachers who serve LDS.

### Definitions

Before beginning a discussion about linguistically diverse students and the teachers who serve them, it is important to operationalize the definitions integral to this discussion. A *linguistically diverse student* (LDS) is defined as a student who, at the very least, speaks a language other than English. Some LDS also possess literacy skills in their heritage languages. Finally, a LDS is a student who is learning English in the U.S. educational system. Linguistically Diverse Students represent a group of high, middle, and low achieving students (Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2001). Low achievers often perform much lower relative to their monolingual peers and higher achieving LDS show performance trends that are much higher than monolingual peers. Their presence in schools expand traditional notions of the normal distribution curve (Dudley-Marling & Gurn, 2010), meaning LDS under- and over-perform compared to their monolingual

peers, expanding the tails of the curve. “Linguistically diverse” is an encompassing term that includes other, more narrowly defined terms. For example, LDS are often referred to as *English Language Learners* (ELLs), *English as Second Language* (ESL) students, *bilingual learners* (BLs), *language minority* (LM) students, and/or *limited English proficiency* (LEP) students. LEP refers to the limited English proficiency of a student, according to the U.S. Department of Education, and those who demonstrate limited English proficiency are labeled ELLs. BLs are defined as students who are developing proficiency and use of more than one language (Brisk & Harrington, 2000). The degree of proficiency and amount of use vary by individual as they do when BLs are exposed to additional languages. LDS is an umbrella term. All of the different definitions offered above are distinctive (e.g., not all BLs are ELLs), however, the term LDS provides a broader umbrella, requiring a perspective which characterizes the individuality of each LDS.

### Theoretical Framework

Sociocultural theorists believe views are derived from interactions between human beings and their social and cultural contexts. As Gee (1992) purports, “in regard to human cognition the proper unit of study is not...the individual mind, but people engaged in social forms of life out in the world” (p. 1). From this perspective, teaching and learning are social activities, not simply a transmission of knowledge from teachers to students. Therefore, the sociocultural perspective on human learning expands how we think about teaching and learning in schools. I draw from the work of sociocultural theorists (Gee, 2001; Heath, 1983; Crawford & Bartolomé, 2010; Michaels, 1981; Nieto, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978) to develop a framework for this study in order to examine three



specific domains: teacher preparation, teacher attitudes, and teachers' decision-making practices.

### *Teacher Preparation*

The work of Crawford and Bartolomé (1994, 2010) and Bartolomé (2004) also provide a theoretical context for the current dissertation. Crawford and Bartolomé's (2010) critical, sociocultural view of current teacher education practices urges teacher educators and prospective teachers to understand the "ideological dimensions" of their practice. They believe:

To prepare educators who can appropriately name, examine, and reconstruct alternate ways of teaching begins with a pedagogy that nurtures hope, innovation, and successful intervention and instills a sense of humanity in learning environments currently occupied by students who we recognize only by their differences or deviances (p. 22).

This view of teacher preparation, through the lens of sociocultural theory, asserts that the current culture of recognizing students by their deviances or differences creates hegemonic ideologies. In particular, Bartolomé's (1994) earlier work discusses the "methods fetish," or teachers' obsession with finding the 'right' method(s) to use with LDS. In doing so, teachers' practices are not connected with the social contexts in which they teach; teachers' actions serve to fix LDS, rather than examine their own "ideological dimensions" (Crawford & Bartolomé, 2010). Crawford and Bartolomé (2010) recommend that teacher educators help to guide teacher candidates to understand sociocultural theory, in addition to being aware of the connections between power, culture, language, and ideology in their schools. Awareness of these connections, they contend, teachers will enter the field with the teacher knowledge necessary to be effective educators.

### *Teacher Attitudes*

The work of Heath (1983) and Michaels (1981) also inform the theoretical underpinnings of this dissertation, particularly as their work pertains to language learning and teacher attitudes. Heath (1983) contrasted the language and literacy practices in homes of three different communities. She found that students' language abilities that most aligned with the academic language of schooling were the most successful in school. From this research, Heath theorized that context does matter – cultural forces anchored within a historical context mediate language use.

In other work, Michaels (1981) studied the “sharing time” activities of first graders and found, like Heath (1983), that when student's home discourse practices mirrored that of their teacher, collaboration was easy. But, if home language did not match teacher-led, academic discourse, those students were at a disadvantage; the “sharing time” activities work only to affirm academic discourse. Both Michaels (1981) and Heath (1983) situated their work in the context of literacy practices. Both theorized that while the context and culture of home languages matter tremendously, if discourse practices do not match the dominant discourse of school, they are not reinforced or valued.

Nieto (2000) extended the work of Heath (1983) and Michaels (1981) by focusing on how culture, identity and learning stem from social interaction. This work provides a clear example of how teacher attitudes are generated from this interaction. Nieto (2000) uses the dictum “Equal is not the same” to illustrate the need to affirm diversity, rather than treat all people the same, and therefore, perpetuate the status quo. What does it mean for teachers and students, their cultures, identities and learning if “equal is not the same?” If “equal is not the same,” according to Nieto, three attitudes are held constant:

1. Acknowledging difference (including gender, race, language, class, sexual orientation, ethnicity)
2. Admitting identities may influence learning
3. Accepting difference and making provisions for them

From this perspective, teachers and their students generate attitudes about cultures, identities and learning in a variety of contexts. In contrast to Heath (1983) and Michaels' (1981) research results, which placed variation at a disadvantage, the attitudinal differences Bartolomé put forth are viewed positively – as assets.

### *Teachers' Decision-Making Practices*

The final domain, teachers' decision-making practices, is discussed using sociocultural theory grounded in special education. Recent policy changes (e.g. Reauthorization of IDEIA, 2004, including Response to Intervention (RTI)) have shifted the way students receive services for special education. This special education legislation introduced an optional and potentially effective way to identify specific learning disabilities using Response to Intervention (RTI), a new model to promote preventative, evidence-based instruction, based on formative assessment of student performance rather than the IQ-discrepancy method used since 1977 (see Greenfield, Rinaldi, Proctor, & Cardarelli, 2010, for a detailed description of RTI). Instead of the deficit being placed within the student, teachers can now examine their own pedagogical practices, including their ability to acknowledge and include cultural, linguistic and social differences in their classrooms. Since the policy change is relatively new, it is still unknown the extent to which the new recommendations are followed.

### How Are U.S. Demographics Changing?

Nationally, enrollment of English language learners (ELLs) increased over 60 percent from 1994-1995 to 2004-2005. In particular, Spanish-speaking ELLs make up

approximately 80 percent of the total ELLs in U.S. public schools (Kohler & Lazarín, 2006; McCardle, Mele-McCarthy, Cutting, Leos, & D'Emilio, 2005; National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition & Language Instruction, 2005). These changing demographics and recent policy changes, such as those presented above, are creating additional layers of pressure and accountability for both teachers and students. For example, the *No Child Left Behind* Act of 2001 (NCLB) requires that ELLs be tested in English three years after their arrival to the U.S. Combined with the waning of native language instruction in states like Massachusetts, Arizona and California, NCLB creates an environment where teachers must provide the vast majority of instruction in English while preparing LDS to be successful with federal and state assessments. *English for the Children*, a conservative organization based in California to end bilingual education nationwide, argue that since federal and state assessments are in English so too should be students' instruction. While bilingual education has been shown to have positive implications for both learning English and developing a student's heritage language (Cheung & Slavin, 2005; Cummins, 2000; Foreman, 2002; Krashen, 2003; Oller & Eilers, 2002; Rolstad, Mahoney, & Glass, 2005; Willig, 2005), public opinion of bilingual education continues to be negative (Crawford & Krashen, 2007). Together, the changing demographics and the dynamic policy landscape continue to create a complicated and complex context within which teachers must educate LDS.

#### What Is the Nature of Achievement among Linguistically Diverse Students Served?

While there are examples of quality schooling for bilingual students (See August & Hakuta, 1997; Brisk, 1998), many LDS are poorly served by U.S. public schools (Kozol, 1991; Peske & Haycock, 2006). Some students may be undocumented, emigrating to the

U.S. with their families; others may be refugees, fleeing to the U.S. for safety or opportunity; and others may be sojourners, living temporarily in an area while their families work or attend school. Over 65 percent of these students, however, are bilingual learners born in the U.S. who speak a language other than English at home (USDOE, 2010). In all cases, the communities in which schools where LDS attend are situated in unique contexts: some welcome and support the education of bilingual learners, immigrants, refugees and sojourners, while others provide substandard instruction to LDS based on the sociocultural, political or historical beliefs of teachers and administrators. A review of the extant literature identifies three critical indicators that represent the degree to which LDS are underserved in U.S. schools: low student achievement (Ladson-Billings, 2006), high school dropout rates (NCES, 2007b; Uriarte & Tung, 2009), and the disproportionality of minority students placed in special education (Donovan & Cross, 2002).

### *Education Debt*

When the term “achievement gap” is used, it automatically situates some students as typical learners, while moving all others to the margins. Instead of making reference to low student achievement as the “achievement gap,” Ladson-Billings (2006) encourages readers to begin to look at what she calls the “education debt.” School segregation and funding inequities are examples of what Ladson-Billings (2006) attributes to the sociopolitical, moral, historic, and economic underpinnings of this debt. This debt, which directly impacts minority groups like LDS, continues to persist. For example, the National Center of Education Statistics (NCES) (2007a) reports that White students outperformed their Black and Hispanic counterparts on the reading assessment of the

2004 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). Ladson-Billings shifts away from focus on the gap between Whites and minority groups toward the debt that is owed to minority students. This economic metaphor serves as a way to perceive how all students, especially LDS, are educated, and the way educators invest in their achievement.

While policy debates about native language instruction are important, more central to this study are teacher preparation, attitudes and practices as they relate to LDS. The practices of teachers are directly related to LDS' academic achievement. Therefore, the debt as described above, is directly dependent on the way teachers' view LDS, their previous teacher preparation, and their current practices.

### *High School Dropout Rates*

Another instance of educational red ink can be found in high school dropout rates among LDS. While the percentage of 16- to 24-year-olds who dropped out of high school decreased from 13 to 9 percent between 1989 and 2005 overall (NCES, 2007b), such was not the case when the data were disaggregated by race and ethnicity. For example, in 1989, Hispanic students comprised a higher percentage (33 percent) of dropouts, than their Black (14 percent), White (9 percent), and Asian/Pacific Islander (8 percent) peers. In 2005, the percentage of students dropping out of high school decreased, but the same pattern for minority students persisted; Hispanics had a higher percentage of dropouts (22 percent) than Blacks (10 percent), Whites (6 percent), and Asians/Pacific Islanders (3 percent) (NCES, 2007b). These statistics about high school dropout rates require addressing issues around school segregation and funding inequalities.

Further, The Mauricio Gaston Institute at the University of Massachusetts – Boston

recently studied the education of ELLs in the Boston Public Schools, reporting on the status of Boston's bilingual students. Since the passing of Question 2, a referendum requiring English-only (EO) education for all students, LDS received fewer educational service options and were enrolled in separate special education settings twice as often as prior to Question 2 on the Massachusetts State Referendum. Further, the dropout rates for students in programs for LDS doubled (Uriarte & Tung, 2009). These federal and local statistics give credence to the current claim that LDS continue to be served with disparity and inequality, and require payment toward their education debt.

### *Disproportionality of Minority Students in Special Education*

Further debt is documented through the placement of LDS in special education. For the last 30 years researchers, activists, teachers and administrators have been concerned about the disproportionate numbers of minority students in high incidence, (LD, mental retardation, and emotional disturbance) special education programs (Donovan & Cross, 2002; Heller, Holtzman, & Messick, 1982; Losen & Orfield, 2002; Reschly, 2009; Waitoller, Artiles, & Cheney, 2010). There are a variety of factors believed to contribute to this disproportionality. The context of schools, including the ways schools and teachers refer and determine students eligible for special education services (Coutinho & Oswald, 2000), perpetuate a sociopolitical, historical problem. In essence, the assessment and eligibility processes are biased (Harry & Klingner, 2007; Losen & Orfield, 2002; Utley & Obiakor, 2001). Further, there are few preventative measures in place to reduce this bias (Donovan & Cross, 2002) as well as limited research about the referral and placement of minority students in special education (Figueroa & Newsome, 2006). The phenomenon of disproportionality continues to persist

and is an important factor to address when discussing the knowledge, attitudes, and decision-making practices of teachers who teach LDS.

The three indicators discussed – low student achievement, increased high school dropout rates, and disproportionality of LDS in special education – highlight the bleak outcomes for LDS in today’s school. How LDS are currently served cannot be described as being inclusive or just. The next section explains three reasons why LDS continue to be poorly served.

### What Matters in Serving Linguistically Diverse Students?

Many LDS continue to struggle academically. This may be in part due to the fact that many teachers are underprepared to educate them (Lucas & Grinberg, 2008; Menken & Antunez, 2001). Three explanations provide insight about why and how this occurs: coursework, knowledge, and attitudes. Detailed explanations of each follow.

#### *Coursework Matters*

Lucas and Grinberg (2008) argue that appropriate preparation can positively affect teachers who serve LDS. Without such preparation, “classroom teachers are left to sink or swim, much as the [LDS] in their classes” (p. 609). The ways teachers perceive and respond to LDS is influenced, in part, by the knowledge gathered and attitudes formed throughout their teacher education experiences (Mora & Grisham, 2001; Washburn, 2008).

According the U.S. Government Accountability Office (2009), “no more than 20 percent of [traditional teacher preparation programs] programs required at least one course entirely focused on English language learners” (p.17) and 28 percent require field placements with LDS. These percentages show little increase from Menken and



Antunez's (2001) report, which said that only 17 percent of teacher education programs, schools, colleges, and departments of education in the U.S. required a course focused on educating LDS. Collectively, these statistics do not align with Wong Fillmore and Snow's (2002) widely cited report recommending the need for teachers to know more about language, regardless of the linguistic composition of their classrooms. Wong Fillmore and Snow (2002) recommend extensive language-related knowledge and corresponding coursework. Linguistic and language coursework are thought to promote the understanding of teaching LDS. If courses in bilingualism, second language acquisition and educational linguistics are not offered, or if practicum experiences where pre-service teachers work with LDS and are mentored by master teachers do not take place, teacher candidates do not have opportunities to take up these recommendations. To address these concerns, it was reported that 58 percent of teacher preparation programs have taken steps in the last three years (2006-2009) or were planning on taking steps in the next two years to better prepare preservice teachers to work with LDS (U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2009).

### *Practice Matters*

Professional development created and implemented to support in-service teachers, does not sufficiently provide knowledge essential to work with LDS (Karabenick & Noda, 2004). In 2008, according to the U.S. Department of Education, 21 percent (10.9 million) of children ages 5–17 spoke a language other than English at home (Aud, Hussar, Planty, Snyder, Bianco, Fox, Frohlich, Kemp, & Drake, 2010). This statistic has a direct impact on classroom teachers, because as the number of LDS in U.S. classrooms grows, so should teachers' varied practices. However, most teachers report feeling

unprepared to teach LDS (Lucas and Grinberg, 2008; K. Menken, personal communication, July 31, 2010; Menken & Antunez, 2001). Furthermore, efforts to raise awareness among in-service teachers have been limited. For example, in 2001-2002, classroom teachers who had three or more LDS reported having an average of four hours of professional development related to instructing LDS in the last five years (Zehler et al, 2003). Given that new teachers are more likely to be employed in schools with high percentages of LDS (NCES, 2003b), these statistics enhance the concern that if teacher candidates are not supported as they move into the field, the future achievement of LDS is at risk.

### *Attitudes Matter*

The systems, structures, cultures, and attitudes within schools inform the education and treatment of students (Oakes, 2005). When teachers accept their first jobs, previous teacher education experiences with LDS meet a new reality. Do new teachers follow district guidelines to educate LDS, even if they conflict with their practice philosophy, in order to gain tenure? Or, do teachers work in opposition to a school culture where administrators' and colleagues' practices for and about LDS are different from their own? Or, are the practices in their schools support appropriate instruction of LDS? The culture of schools, school districts and the teachers they employ may work along a continuum of conflicts and resolutions. One example of potential alignment can be found in the New York City (NYC) Public Schools Office of English language learners. The office claims to value linguistic diversity in their schools. It reported: "[LDS] are not a monolithic group, and those with specialized needs require equity and access to a rigorous education" (NYC DOE, 2009, p. 28). While each NYC school is

surely different, this provides a district-level mandate, modeling alignment with teacher education programs that value linguistic diversity and strive to educate LDS in the most appropriate ways. Every school can create its own structure and culture that can support or ignore the needs of LDS.

### Limitations of Previous Research

Since the number of LDS is growing exponentially but teacher education programs are only beginning to address how best to prepare teacher candidates to educate LDS (U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2009), it becomes critical to understand how coursework, practices, and attitudes impact the ways teachers make decisions for and about LDS. Though research has been conducted relative to the relevance of coursework and teacher knowledge (Darling-Hammond, 2000; National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1997), there has been little research on how such coursework and teachers' practices explain the decision-making characteristics of elementary teachers (Carter, 2008). Currently there is no research on how particular coursework, practices, and attitudes explain elementary teachers' decision-making when teaching LDS who struggle to access the curriculum. Such is the express purpose of this dissertation.

### Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to investigate how teachers' coursework, practices, and attitudes may inform their decisions about LDS in their elementary classrooms. Four research questions guide this study:

*Research Question 1: What are the principal components of the three surveys administered to elementary teachers?*

*Research Question 2: What are the relationships between teachers' practices, language attitudes, and teacher education coursework?*

*Research Question 3: How do the results from Research Question 2 inform sample selection for Research Question 4?*

*Research Question 4: What are the decision-making practices of a representative sample of practicing elementary teachers who educate linguistically diverse students?*

### Significance of the Study

Linguistically diverse students are vibrant, integral stakeholders in today's classrooms. As the number of LDS continues to grow, teachers will be asked to integrate or challenge their attitudes and use their knowledge – learned in teacher education programs and “on the job” – to make appropriate decisions for LDS who struggle to access the general curriculum. Since coursework on language, bilingualism or special education (beyond introductory courses) are not usually required in most elementary teacher education programs (Bocala, Morgan, Mundry, & Mello, 2010; Holdeheide & Reschly, 2008; U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2009), it leaves teachers searching for effective ways to educate and make decisions about LDS on their own.

In this study, I examined the relationships between and among coursework in bilingualism, special education, or the combination of both, in addition to teachers' practices and attitudes. Then, I delved deeper with nine selected participants to gain better understanding of the decision-making process and practices of elementary teachers who teach LDS. Through this study I addressed what teachers consider when they make decisions about LDS as well as the relationship between what teachers say they know, what they say they do, and what they think. Novice and experienced teachers, as well as policymakers and researchers, often struggle when determining whether or not a LDS struggles academically due to issues inherent to second language acquisition, or whether the student has a learning disability (Donovan & Cross, 2002; Klingner, Hoover & Baca,

2008). Results of this study allowed for greater understanding of how teacher education coursework, teachers' practices, and attitudes are related, including teachers' referral practices for LDS.

### Positionality of Researcher

As this study's researcher, I have a particular viewpoint that needs to be acknowledged. I was a special education teacher for seven years in both public and private school settings and I have worked as a special education consultant, tutor, and professional development facilitator for the last 10 years. I came to this study being a proponent of inclusive education models, where, if appropriate, students of varied learning styles are educated in the same classroom. Additionally, it is my personal view that the disproportionality of LDS in special education does exist. As such, I needed to be aware of these personal biases and how they colored the data collection and interpretation of the study's findings. In order to address these biases, I generated ongoing memos to document what I experienced while completing this research.

I was an "outsider" during this study, meaning I did not work and conduct my research alongside the participants I studied. This stance as an "outsider" provided some benefits, but also served as a detractor. For example, it was beneficial to interview teachers about their own personal experiences as an "outsider" because they could answer with confidence and without fear that their honest and raw responses would be connected directly to them. One drawback of being an "outsider," was that I had to rely on what the participants chose to report; I did not have an inside understanding of their experiences, rather filtered through their personal lenses.

## CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

It is important to make explicit that teacher' attitudes, coursework and practice have historically been linked with student achievement. This study is centered about these three domains to ultimately better understand how attitudes, coursework and practice impact academic outcomes for LDS. While determining specific variables that contribute to student achievement has proved somewhat elusive, some researchers (Arganbright, 1983; Feiman-Nemser & Remillard, 1996; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1992) argue that teachers' attitudes predict practices, which in turn, predict academic outcomes. The academic outcomes for LDS underpins this study – in order for LDS to achieve in schools, their teachers' attitudes, coursework and practice must be examined.

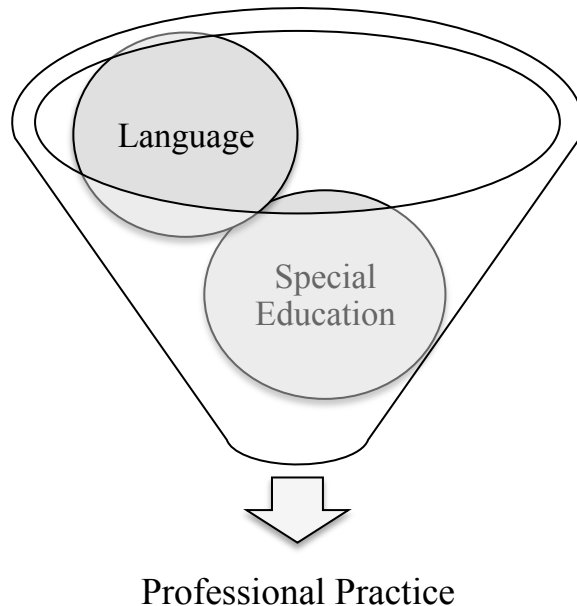
This review addresses three critical domains of literature – coursework, attitudes, and practice – which inform this dissertation research. The third domain addresses teachers' decision-making practices, in particular, decisions to refer LDS to special education. Collectively, all three domains are viewed through a sociocultural lens and create a framework for this study. Based on the three domains, this review is organized by five guiding questions. The first two questions address teacher preparation, in terms of language and special education, the third examines teachers' attitudes toward language, the fourth examines teachers' attitudes toward special education, and the fifth question addresses teachers' decision-making. The questions are:

1. How are preservice classroom teachers prepared to effectively educate students who are linguistically diverse?
2. How are preservice classroom teachers prepared to effectively educate students who receive special education services?

3. What are teachers' attitudes about language and students who are linguistically diverse?
4. What are teachers' attitudes about students who receive special education services?
5. What are teachers' referral practices of linguistically diverse students to special education?

The review examines the literature within language, special education, and practice (See Figure 2.1). Each of the literature review's five sections includes subsections and a section summary. The first section describes the program structures and processes within teacher education programs, in order to better prepare graduates to teach LDS. The second section focuses on classroom teachers' preparation to educate students who receive special education services. The third section documents the literature about teachers' attitudes about language and those LDS they teach. The next section looks at teachers' attitudes about students who receive special education services. The final section examines the current referral, assessment, and decision-making practices about LDS and special education, including how LDS are found eligible for special education services. In all, the review addresses five key questions within the research on language, special education, and practice.

Figure 2.1

*Reviewed Areas of Literature*

### How Are Preservice Classroom Teachers Prepared to Effectively Educate Students Who are Linguistically Diverse?

Teaching LDS has historically been the responsibility of bilingual teachers and Second Language/ESL teacher specialists (Gebhard, et al., 2002). Times have changed. While the number of LDS in K-12 classrooms continues to grow (U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2009), the majority of students will not receive instruction from bilingual or ESL teachers. Thus, much of their instruction will come from general education classroom teachers. How will Institutions of Higher Education (IHEs) adequately prepare general education teachers for this responsibility?

Recently, teacher education researchers have documented their efforts to collect and identify the practices of IHEs who prepare general education teachers to serve LDS



(e.g., Gonzalez & Darling-Hammond, 2000; Nilles, Álvarez & Rios, 2006; Lucas, Villegas & Freedson-Gonzalez, 2008). Since this particular aspect of teacher preparation has typically been subsumed under multicultural teacher preparation or preparing culturally responsive teachers (Villegas, 2008), there is limited research specifically about preparation for linguistic diversity. Further, the research reviewed here is limited to published material, but it is acknowledged that more programmatic changes are likely to be occurring in other IHEs.

To date, some researchers have broadly recommended increased preparation for general education teachers (Gandara & Maxwell-Jolly, 2002; Gebhard, et al., 2002; Vavrus, 2002; Wong Fillmore & Snow, 2002), while others have suggested providing specific language and pedagogical knowledge to teacher candidates (Gonzalez & Darling-Hammond, 2000; Wong Fillmore & Snow, 2002; Zeichner, 1996). In addition, other researchers have discussed the importance of infusing issues of cultural and linguistic diversity into all field experiences and coursework (Zeichner & Melnick, 1996) as well as involving teacher education faculty in such infusion (Gandara & Maxwell-Jolly, 2002; Zeichner, 1996). Specific research on preparing general education teachers for linguistically diverse population is limited, but growing. In order for teachers to serve all students, they need to have appropriate, specific preparation. Being a good teacher, as deJong and Harper (2005) argue, is simply not good enough. As Nilles, Álvarez and Rios (2006) summarize, “ensuring quality education preparation for [LDS] in teacher education programs is no longer optional” (p. 52).

As stated earlier, the responsibility of preparing teachers to educate LDS lies within individual teachers, but also with preservice and in-service teacher educators

(Lucas & Grinberg, 2008). This section, about preparing classroom teachers to effectively educate LDS, is informed by the aforementioned literature about general preservice teachers' knowledge and specific language knowledge. Lucas and Grinberg (2008) identified six change strategies in recent literature that will help prepare classroom teachers to teach LDS. Four structural and two process strategies are offered and guided this section of the review.

Teacher educators can make structural and/or process changes within teacher education programs in order to better prepare general education teachers to educate LDS. Structural strategies could be the reorganization of current curriculum, while process strategies could be implemented without restructuring or reorganization. Structural strategies may include: (a) adding a course to existing curriculum; (b) modifying an existing course and field experience to infuse attention across the curriculum; (c) adding or modifying program prerequisites; and, (d) adding a minor or certificate program. Process strategies may include: (a) collaboration across institutional boundaries, and, (b) professional development for teacher education faculty. A discussion of the six strategies follows.

### *Strategies*

#### *Structural*

There are four documented structural strategies that change teacher education curriculum to better prepare preservice teachers to educate LDS. They include: (a) adding a course to existing curriculum; (b) modifying an existing course and field experience to infuse attention across the curriculum; (c) adding or modifying program prerequisites; and, (d) adding a minor or certificate program (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1

*Language Education Structural Strategies*

Strategy	Author, Year	Study/Context	Explanation of Strategy/Findings
Adding a course	Delaney-Barmann & Minner (1995)	Development and implementation of a program of study to prepare teachers for diversity at Northern Arizona University (NAU)	NAU offers a Spanish for Teachers course
	Valdés, Bunch, Snow, & Lee (2005)	Enhancing the development of students' languages	UC Berkeley offers an introductory linguistic course
	Walker, Ranney, & Fortune (2005)	Preparing preservice teachers for English language learners: a content-based approach	U of M offers a one-credit comprehensive review course
Modifying an existing course and field experience to infuse attention across the curriculum	Barnes (2006)	Preparing Preservice Teachers to Teach in a Culturally Responsive Way	Use of Culturally Responsive Teaching in a reading methods course which coincided with field experiences
	Delaney-Barmann and Minner (1995)	Development and implementation of a program of study to prepare teachers for diversity at NAU	NAU provided seminars, or "special enrichment activities" about LDS
	González & Darling-Hammond (1997)	New concepts for new challenges: professional development for teachers of immigrant youth	Modification of literacy methods course at UC Santa Barbara
	Meskill (2005)	Infusing English Language Learner Issues Throughout Professional Educator Curricula: The Training All Teachers Project	Students and teacher educators participated in workshops and presentations intended to shift deficit beliefs and integrate into curriculum
	Mora and Grisham (2001)	What deliches tortillas! Preparing teachers for literacy instruction in linguistically diverse classrooms	Modification of literacy methods course at UC Santa Barbara; change in preservice teachers' attitudes
Adding or modifying prerequisites	Wong Fillmore & Snow (2000)	What Teachers Need to Know About Language	Recommends students have proficiency in another language and take an introductory linguistics course
Adding a minor or certificate program	Nevárez-La Torre et al., (2005)	Faculty perspectives on integrating linguistic diversity issues into a teacher education program	Minor offered at Temple University
	Delaney-Barmann	Development and	NAU offers a "special content

& Minner (1995)	implementation of a program of study to prepare teachers for diversity at NAU	emphasis”
Homza (personal communication, January 15, 2009)		Boston College offers a minor for undergraduates and certificate for graduate students as a Teacher of English Language Learners (TELL)
Carlson & Walton (1994)	CLAD/BCLAD: California reforms in the preparation and credentialing of teachers for LDS	California’s Cross-Cultural, Language, and Academic Development (CLAD) certificate (now defunct)

*Adding a Course.* The first strategy to prepare classroom teachers to teach LDS is to add a course to existing preservice coursework. There are clear benefits and drawbacks from this strategy. A course that provides general education teachers with theory and strategies to teach LDS sends a message to all teachers that they must be prepared to teach *all* students. On the other hand, teacher education programs of study tend to have limited flexibility.

While there are examples of institutions adding coursework to focus on “multicultural education” (e.g. see Villegas & Lucas, 2002) or teaching diverse learners (e.g. see Artiles, Trent & Palmer, 2004), there are a limited number of universities who have added courses specific to LDS. For example, University of California, Berkley offers an introductory linguistic course (Valdés, Bunch, Snow, & Lee, 2005) and Northern Arizona University (NAU) offers a Spanish for Teachers course (Delaney-Barmann & Minner, 1995). Recently, the University of Minnesota (U of M) began offering a one-credit course to all preservice teachers to comprehensively review integrating language and content to better serve LDS (Walker, Ranney, & Fortune, 2005). Although Wong Fillmore and Snow (2002) recommend possible courses and components to teacher education coursework, to include language and linguistics, language and

cultural diversity, sociolinguistics for educators, language development, second language learning and teaching, language of academic discourse, and text analysis, there are very few examples in the literature of institutions who have followed these recommendations.

*Modifying an Existing Course and Field Experience – Infusion.* A second strategy to prepare general education teachers is modifying an existing course and field experience to infuse attention to LDS across the curriculum. While integrating attention across the curriculum is considered more ideal than simply adding a course (Lucas & Grinberg, 2008; Villegas & Lucas, 2002), creating an infusion model is quite difficult. In order to be effective, teacher education faculty must be equipped to teach and guide preservice teachers as they connect theory and practice. If teacher educators do not have adequate professional development themselves, how will they be able to instruct preservice teachers?

A variety of teacher education programs have chosen to infuse their coursework to improve the preparation of general education teachers (González & Darling-Hammond, 1997 [University of California, Santa Barbara). In particular, Delaney-Barmann and Minner (1995) at NAU provided “special enrichment activities,” like seminars, to address pertinent issues around LDS. More recently, at the University at Albany, State University of New York (SUNY-Albany), a federally funded project (Training All Teachers) was implemented as “an innovative program of curricular enhancement for preservice and inservice teachers” to learn about issues specific to LDS (Meskill, 2005, p. 161). Both teacher education faculty members and students participated in class push-in sessions, group workshop sessions and peer presentations to

attempt to shift deficit beliefs about LDS and for faculty, specifically, to integrate this knowledge into their teacher education curriculum.

Some institutions choose to make modifications to specific courses, while others made changes to field experiences. Mora and Grisham (2001) and González and Darling-Hammond (1997) document course modifications at San Diego State University. Based on state mandates, a literacy methods course was modified to infuse state-mandated content. Mora and Grisham (2001) reported a change in preservice teachers attitudes toward linguistic diversity after taking this methods course (see the next section of this review focusing on attitudes). Barnes (2006) focused on culturally responsive teaching (CRT), not linguistics, per se, with students at Andrews University, Missouri. There, a field experience and a reading methods course occurred simultaneously to address preservice teachers' beliefs about diversity.

*Add or Modify Prerequisites.* A third structural strategy is to add or modify prerequisites in order to be admitted to preservice teacher education programs. Existing literature shows an association between positive beliefs about LDS and studying a foreign language (Hyatt & Biegy, 1999; Youngs & Youngs, 2001). Requiring preservice students to be proficient in another language than English may improve students' levels of empathy and understanding, but because of additional coursework could deter some students from entering the field. Like their course recommendations, Wong Fillmore and Snow (2000) argue an introductory linguistics course could serve as a program prerequisite.

*Add a Minor or Certificate Program.* The fourth structural strategy, adding a minor or certificate program, continues to gain momentum within teacher education

programs. Due to cohesive and specific coursework, this strategy is believed to be the most comprehensive of all the strategies offered (Lucas & Grinberg, 2008).

Three institutions, outside of California, provide examples of adding a minor or certification program. A minor is available at Temple University (Nevárez-La Torre, Sanford-De Shields, Soundy, Leonard, & Woyshner, 2005) and NAU offers a “special content emphasis” (Delaney-Barmann & Minner, 1995). Boston College offers a Teacher of English Language Learners (TELL) minor for undergraduates and a TELL certificate for graduate students. The TELL certificate includes: (a) a field experience with a cooperating teacher certified to teach LDS, (b) the following courses: *Teaching Bilingual Students* and *Bilingualism, Second Language and Literacy Development*; and, (c) assessment training in the Massachusetts English Language Assessment-Oral (MELA-O), used to evaluate the English speaking and listening skills of students.

Coursework and certification in California are different than in other states. Since inception in 1992, California’s Cross-Cultural, Language, and Academic Development (CLAD) certificate was intended to provide teachers with basic knowledge and skills for teaching LDS. Unlike the other three institutional examples, this certificate was required for all California teachers. Teachers who have this credential are California teachers who satisfy a second-language requirement who show knowledge in three areas: (a) language structure and first- and second-language development; (b) methodology of bilingual instruction, instruction for English language development, and academic instruction delivered in English; and, (c) culture and cultural diversity (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing<sup>1</sup>, 2004; Carlson & Watson, 1994). It is important to note that this

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<sup>1</sup> While California uses the term “credential,” the majority of other U.S. states use the term “certification.” In both cases, teachers fulfilled state criteria to be eligible to teach.

credential has now been replaced by requiring teacher education programs to infuse methods (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2004) for teaching LDS across the entire curriculum. This large-scale credentialing initiative, although now defunct, offered an example of how one state attempted to directly address how to best prepare teachers to serve LDS.

Adding a course or prerequisites to existing teacher education programs, as they now exist, is quite difficult. It requires the extension of typical four-year preservice coursework, something in which most universities (and the students they serve) are not prepared to engage. While the modification of courses or infusion of attention across the curriculum brings a more cohesive approach to preparing preservice teachers, it requires that teacher education faculty consistently present shared themes, knowledge and skills across the entire curriculum. Because this involves so many stakeholders, monitoring this structural change is more challenging. Finally, instituting minors and certificate programs may bring preservice teachers the greatest breadth and depth, in terms of knowledge and skills, to serve LDS, but this initiative has only gradually begun; this strategy requires the most structural planning and change. In order to make any of these structural changes, teacher education faculty, as well as the preservice teachers who attend their universities, must value the additive quality that LDS bring to K-12 classrooms. Then, together, teacher educators and preservice teachers can work to better prepare themselves to serve this linguistically diverse population.

### *Process*

While there are four documented structural strategies to change teacher education curriculum, there are two process strategies that can also contribute to the bettering of



preservice teachers preparation to teach LDS. The two process strategies include: (a) collaboration across institutional boundaries, and, (b) professional development for teacher education faculty. Table 2.2 lists both types of process strategies. It includes three studies which describe collaboration across institutional boundaries and three regarding professional development. The six examples of process strategies are drawn from work completed in Arizona, California, and Massachusetts.

Table 2.2

*Process Strategies*

Strategy	Author, Year	Study/Context	Findings
Collaboration across institutional boundaries	Bermúdez, Fradd, Haulman, & Weismantel (1989)	Developing a Coordination Model for Programs Preparing Personnel to Work with LEP Students	Collaboration within schools of education is a way to use IHEs' resources to meet the needs of teacher candidates
	Evans, Arnot-Hopffer, & Jurich (2005)	Makes ends meet: bringing bilingual education and general education students together in preservice education; University of Arizona	Faculty members must have experience with knowledge and methods appropriate for LDS in order to impart them on their teacher candidates
	Gebhard, Austin, Nieto, & Willett (2002)	"You can't step on someone else's words": preparing all teachers to teach language minority students; Bilingual/ESL/Multicultural Education (BEM) Practitioner Program – University of Massachusetts, Amherst	The preparation of political, ethical and moral educators, who can best support the needs of language minority students, through the BEM program
Professional development for teacher education faculty	Costa, McPhail, Smith & Brisk (2005)	The challenge of infusing the teacher education curriculum with scholarship on English language learners; Boston College	PD created personal and programmatic changes within teacher education faculty and the program to better meet the needs of teacher candidates who serve LDS
	González & Darling-Hammond (1997)	New concepts for new challenges: professional development for teachers of immigrant youth; UC San Diego State	Teacher candidates perceived themselves to be better prepared; teacher education faculty discussed cross-curricular goals, providing evidence of professional growth
	O'Hara & Pritchard (2008)	Meeting the Challenge of Diversity: Professional Development for Teacher Educators; UC	After training, teacher education faculty had a deeper understanding on standards related to English learners,

*Collaboration across Institutional Boundaries.* Previously discussed structural strategies give credence to the difficulties involved in preparing general education classroom teachers to educate LDS. One significant difficulty is limited time and resources. One way to counter the lack of teacher educators prepared to teach courses to pre-service teachers is for university faculty to collaborate across institutional boundaries. Three examples of such collaboration appear in the literature.

First, Bermúdez, Fradd, Haulman, and Weismantel (1989) describe an early coordination model linking bilingual education programs with other programs within IHEs as well as other outside agencies. Intra-institutional coordination includes integrating programs and efforts to prepare teachers to better support their LDS. Within schools of education, collaboration can take place with departments of special education and school psychology, while departments such as linguistics, sociology and speech/language communication, outside of schools of education, can also yield spaces to coordinate. In all, Bermúdez et al. (1989) promoted collaboration as a way to best use IHEs' resources to meet the needs of their teacher candidates.

Evans, Arnot-Hopffer and Jurich (2005) described the University of Arizona's effort to combine a cohort of bilingual and general education teacher candidates within a methods course. This example appeared more than 15 years after Bermúdez et al.'s (1989) recommendations and reported on the strengths and weaknesses of this type of collaboration. Students reported that the goals and themes of this program, like knowledge about the role of language and culture and positive attitudes toward linguistically diverse population, were not always consistent among the faculty. In order

to make an impact with teacher candidates, this study showed that faculty members must, too, have experience with knowledge and methods appropriate for LDS.

Third, Gebhard, Austin, Nieto, and Willett (2002) described the Bilingual/ESL/Multicultural Education (BEM) Practitioner Program at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst (UMASS-Amherst). Teacher candidates are encouraged to take courses from in and out of the school of education, based on their needs, but all candidates take a required introduction course. From a social justice perspective, BEM seeks to prepare political, ethical and moral educators, ones who can best support the needs of language minority students.

*Professional Development for Teacher Education Faculty.* The second process strategy is providing professional development for teacher education faculty. As stated earlier, structural strategies like adding or modifying a course would be unachievable without teacher education faculty with knowledge and skills to prepare teacher candidates to serve LDS. In fact, in 1992 the Committee for Multicultural Education, a committee of the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE), stressed the need for faculty professional development, stating: “cross-culturally sensitive professional development and accommodation training are each equally applicable to college faculty members as they are to public school educators” (Brisk, et al., 2002, p. 1). In order to address this call, several IHEs have offered professional development opportunities for teacher education faculty (Costa et al., 2005; González & Darling-Hammond, 1997; Nevárez-LaTorre, et al., 2005; O’Hara & Pritchard, 2008). Three specific examples are discussed here.

In the mid-1990s, San Diego State University infused their teacher preparation coursework with content from California's CLAD credential (González & Darling-Hammond, 1997). Based on the faculty's needs assessment, teacher educators participated in a one-week course to increase knowledge and skills in the area of language and culture, including ways to infuse this within methods courses. While faculty met twice a month to discuss programmatic issues, they also participated in five all-day workshops and ongoing discussions through the year. Results from the study were positive; teacher candidates perceived themselves to be better prepared, and at year-end, teacher education faculty discussed cross-curricular goals to be addressed in the future (e.g. increasing sensitivity to cultural differences), signifying a transformation in their professional growth.

At Boston College, based on a three-year federally funded initiative, teacher education faculty participated in professional development to prepare teacher candidates to serve LDS (Costa et al., 2005). A faculty institute, including faculty, doctoral students and public schools personnel, driven by scholarship on LDS, created personal and programmatic changes within teacher education faculty and the program itself.

Most recently, O'Hara and Pritchard (2008) reported on a professional development program for teacher education faculty at a California State University campus, designed to support the implementation of Senate Bill 2042 (SB2042). SB2042 replaces the CLAD credential, discussed above and in previous sections, requiring elements related to teaching culturally and LDS to be embedded across the teacher education curriculum, for all candidates, instead of a separate credential program. Results from the study revealed teacher education faculty had a deeper understanding on

standards related to English learners, special population and technology. Further, the authors argued the success of the professional development effort was due to: support from all stakeholders (e.g. faculty, administrators, K-12 partnership schools), faculty ownership, or “buy-in,” thoughtfully planning sessions to meet the needs of faculty commitments, and face-to-face and online discussion components.

Teacher educators are using structural (adding a course to existing curriculum, modifying an existing course and field experience to infuse attention across the curriculum, adding or modifying program prerequisites, adding a minor or certificate program) and process (collaboration across institutional boundaries, professional development for teacher education faculty) strategies to better prepare teacher candidates to teach linguistically diverse populations. The results from the studies in this section offer initial documentation of structural and process-based strategy implementation. However, more research and documentation of this evolving process is necessary for current and future teacher education programs.

Not all of these strategies are appropriate or sufficient for all programs. IHEs’ contexts dictate different types of modifications. For example, the political context in California has forced teacher education programs to add and infuse coursework as well as create faculty professional development; these changes are policy driven (e.g. CLAD and then SB2042). Further, adding a minor, courses or requiring prerequisites all require teacher educators to supply the knowledge and skills to lead these endeavors. If faculty members are not sufficiently prepared, these strategies will not come to fruition. On the other hand, if an IHE participates in faculty professional development, they may be more apt to infuse or create knowledge and skills about how to teach LDS within their

programs. Each IHE must examine the strengths of their teacher education faculty as well as their existing program, and then identify structural and process strategies that may best correspond to their needs. There are few studies that document these kind of strategic changes made within IHEs. Further research is needed so programs can make individual changes in order to best support the education of preservice teachers who will serve all students – including those with linguistic diversity.

While this section focused on ways to prepare teachers to effectively educate LDS, using both procedural and structural strategies, the following section discusses teachers' attitudes about LDS and the languages they speak. It examined studies of preservice and inservice teachers' attitudes.

#### How Are Preservice Teachers Prepared to Effectively Educate Students who Receive Special Education Services?

Similar to the previous discussion about the historical responsibility of teaching LDS falling on bilingual teachers or ESL specialists, the majority of the responsibility to teach students who receive special education has historically rested on special educators' shoulders. However, the last 30 years of federal legislation has shifted the responsibility from the sole ownership of special educators to the shared ownership of both special educators and general education teachers. Before examining the structural strategies IHEs use to prepare general education teachers, it is important to review significant past federal policies as well as the today's contexts of classrooms and traditional teacher preparation programs. Collectively, educating students with special education needs is situated within greater political, school and IHEs contexts.

#### *Context*

##### *Political*

Federal legislation in the last 30 years includes policies pertaining to special education, general education, and higher education. The Education of All Handicapped Children Act (1975), reauthorized as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (1991/1997), and then reauthorized as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA) in 2004, is based on the principle of least restrictive environment (LRE). LRE is defined as educating students with disabilities to the “maximum extent possible” with students without disabilities and removing students with disabilities only if “education in regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactory” (IDEA, 2004, 34 C.F.R. 300.114[a][2]). The LRE principle required an emphasis on the education of students with disabilities in general education classrooms, but it did not dictate an exact level of inclusion. Inclusion, defined as educating students with and without disabilities in the same general education classroom (Hehir, 2005), is believed to have a positive impact on students (e.g. Vaughn, Elbaum, Schumm, & Hughes, 1998). Under IDEIA’s most recent reauthorization, general education teachers have increased responsibility. For example, at least one general education teacher needs to participate in the special education process (e.g. referral meeting, eligibility determination) for a student with a suspected disability. The new policy also recommended the use of RTI, which increases general education teachers’ responsibilities to provide instructional interventions with general education classrooms. Further, IDEIA requires that state education agencies provide guidance on licensure requirements for general education teachers’ training to educate students with disabilities.

Combining these special education policies with the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 created a more complicated landscape for teachers. NCLB

mandated that “highly qualified” teachers educate all students –including those who receive special education, meaning teachers must hold full state certification. Special education teachers, however, must have full state certification in special education and the content areas in which they teach. In contrast, NCLB does not specify specific requirements for general classroom teachers who teach linguistically diverse and/or students who receive special education. Due to the accountability measures embedded within NCLB policy, like high-stakes testing, the performance of students in subgroups, including race, gender, SES status, language, and special education status must be documented. This has direct implications for teachers, the schools where they teach, and their students – in order to raise student achievement, regardless of students’ special education status, all teachers are held accountable.

Most recently, the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) of 2009 provided \$97 billion to education in the U.S. From the larger pool of money, more than \$21 billion was allocated to funding three existing federal grants “that either require or allow funds to be used to prepare general classroom teachers to instruct students with disabilities and English language learners” (U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2009, p. 13). As of April 2009, only three states had submitted proposals to secure these funds. Also of interest is the Higher Education Act (HEA) of 1965, recently reauthorized and renamed The Higher Education Opportunity Act (HEOA) (2008). The reauthorization required annual reporting on the preparation of general education teachers to educate students with disabilities and English language learners. Collectively, IDEA, NCLB, ARRA, and HEOA are the four major federal policies that have and continue to



influence the preparation of general education teachers to education students with disabilities.

### *Classroom*

The students and teachers within elementary classrooms contribute to the greater context of preparing general education teachers to serve students with disabilities. Between 2007-2008, over 6.6 million school children received special education services. Put another way, 13.4 percent of students received special education services and of those who received services, 39 percent were in the specific learning disability category (USDOE, 2010, p. 34). Within this more inclusionary policy context, during the 2006-2007 school year, 53.7 percent of students spent 80 percent or more of their instructional time in general education classrooms. This percentage has increased, compared to 31.7 percent during 1989-1990 (USDOE, 2010).

Besides the percentage of students who receive special education and the level of inclusion documented, it is important to examine the teachers in U.S. schools. In 2007-2008, there were 3.5 million full-time teachers who were mostly female (84%). Elementary general education teachers made up half of the teaching workforce (53%), while 9.3 percent of teachers were special educators and less than 1 percent were ESL teachers. Further, 17 percent of public school teachers had three or fewer years of experience (average teaching experience was 14 years) and 14 percent were newly hired. Forty-five percent of teachers held bachelor's degrees, 46 percent held master's degrees, and 8 percent had specialist/professional diplomas or doctoral degrees. Eighty-three percent of teachers were White, 7 % Black, 7 % Hispanic, and 3% Other (USDOE, 2010).

### *Teacher Education Programs*

There are no federal guidelines or standards that traditional teacher preparation programs (housed in IHEs) must follow, so programs typically follow state mandates. The only national, public document that delineates between the roles of general education teachers and special educators, as well as standards they should share, are the model standards prepared by The Interstate Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) (2001). More recently, InTASC (2010) issued model core teaching standards, which include standards for learning differences that discuss teachers' knowledge of individualized instruction, instructional strategies, and second language acquisition. States and professional groups (e.g., American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Regional Educational Laboratory At Education Development Center) refer to the InTASC model standards when they discuss preparing general education teachers to educate students who receive special education. The National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality (NCCTQ) also created "critical competencies" designed to support teacher preparation programs, including training in inclusion, collaboration, pedagogical strategies, advocacy, and effective models of inclusion (Holdheide & Reschly, 2008). Finally, the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC) tracks state policies, including states' teacher coursework requirements in special education for general education teachers. Currently, the database lists that 27 states require coursework in teaching students with disabilities for general education teachers, nine states and the District of Columbia do not require coursework, and 14 states did not report any data in this category (National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification, 2010). Compared to state level

reporting, a higher percentage (95%) of teacher preparation programs reported requiring “at least some training in educating students with disabilities” (U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2010). Each source defines and reports their policies in a variety of ways, adding to the complexity of this context.

Since states are left to determine their individual certification requirements and IHEs rely on state policy, it is important to review the literature about the ways IHEs prepare general education teachers to teach students with disabilities. Preparing teachers occurs in connection with the political, classroom, and teacher preparation contexts. The responsibility of preparing teachers to educate LDS and students who receive special education lies within individual teachers, but also with preservice and in-service teacher educators (Lucas & Grinberg, 2008). The previous section of this review examined the process and structural strategies used within IHEs to prepare general educator to serve LDS. This section builds off the previous and examines strategies used by traditional teacher preparation programs to prepare general education teachers to effectively educate students who receive special education. The review of this literature identified four structural strategies guide this section of the review. The structural strategies included are: (a) one course requirement; (b) modifying an existing course and field experience to infuse attention across the curriculum; (c) adding a dual program; and, (d) collaborative course delivery.

### *Strategies*

#### *Structural*

*One Course Requirement.* The majority (67-73 percent) of traditional teacher education programs at IHEs require teachers to take one special education course (U.S.

Government Accountability Office, 2009). While some IHEs track the impact of these introductory courses (Harvey, Yssel, Bauserman, & Merbler, 2010; Rosenzweig, 2009), others have added a new course to their general education program, usually collaboratively taught by two or more faculty members (see upcoming section about *Collaborative Course Delivery*). Hamre and Oyler (2004) documented their voluntary collaborative inquiry group at Teachers College, Columbia University. There, the researchers followed six “exceptionally motivated” preservice, general education teachers over a semester where they dialogued about inclusive classrooms. Students reported a shared commitment to inclusion, but their level of commitment was dependent on their experiences. Within the group, students used moral and ideological arguments to guide their practice, but rarely discussed the instruction practices needed to serve students within an inclusion model.

Harvey, Yssel, Bauserman, and Merbler (2010) and Rosenzweig (2009) surveyed IHE faculty and teachers, respectively, about course requirements within their programs. The 124 IHEs surveyed by Harvey et al. (2010) agreed that education majors took an introductory course in special education. Using their self-created *Preservice Teacher Preparation for Inclusion Assessment Survey*, researchers reported that surveyed IHEs offered field experiences where preservice teachers could collaborate. The special education faculty ( $N=57$ ) surveyed agreed that courses in collaboration were offered and the majority of respondents reported that co-taught courses were not offered. The authors recommended an integrated special and general education program within IHEs. Like Harvey et al., Rosenzweig (2009) surveyed recent graduates and found that seven of 10 surveyed took an introductory special education course, which included basic information

and a brief overview of federal law. The others had no coursework in this area. On the same survey, nine of 10 teachers felt “if given a job in an inclusion classroom they would be less than adequately prepared to instruct students(s) with disabilities” (p. 17).

Rosenzweig (2009) called for IHEs to better support for general education teachers. She said, “It is imperative that university programs and staff development and training seminars do not assume that future and present teachers know what inclusion entails. Training programs need to focus on both *why* differentiated instruction is important and *how* we can provide it to our students, whether they possess an IEP or not” (p. 14). The authors of these three studies (see Table 2.3) provide evidence that general educators need more than just one course to support their understanding of inclusion and instructional practices for students with disabilities.

Table 2.3

*Special Education Structural Strategies*

Strategy	Author, Year	Study/Context	Explanation of Strategy/Findings
One Course Requirement	Hamre & Oylar (2004)	Preparing Teachers for Inclusive Classrooms: Learning from a Collaborative Inquiry Group N=6 “exceptionally motivated”	Voluntary collaborative inquiry group; teachers’ commitment to inclusion is dependent on experience
	Harvey, Yssel, Bauserman, & Merbler (2010)	Preservice Teacher Preparation for Inclusion: An Exploration of Higher Education Teacher-Training Institutions	Survey results showed that education majors took an introductory special education course; IHEs offered field experiences where preservice teachers could collaborate; special education faculty agreed that courses in collaboration were offered; majority said co-taught courses were not offered
	Rosenzweig (2009)	Are Today’s General Education Teachers Prepared to Meet the Needs of Their Inclusive Students?	Seven out of 10 surveyed preservice teacher reported being required to take one special education course during their preparation; call for more support for general educators
Adding a Dual	Sobel, Iceman-	Merging General and	Teacher candidates had a

Program	Sands, & Basile (2007)	Special Education Teacher Preparation Programs to Create an Inclusive Program for Diverse Learners	positive disposition toward educating students with disabilities; 9 of 12 faculty members reported that collaborative themes support diversity and provided opportunities to enhance their content knowledge
	Wolfberg, LePage, & Cook (2009)	Innovations in Inclusive Education: Two Teacher Preparation Programs at the San Francisco State University	Candidates have produced “high quality portfolio documentation”; candidates can receive credentials in all three areas faster; students benefited from multidisciplinary approach
Modify Existing Course or Infusion	Brown, Welsh, Haegele Hill, & Cipko (2008)	The Efficacy of Embedding Special Education Instruction in Teacher Preparation Programs in the United States	Embedded instruction significantly increased preservice teachers’ knowledge of inclusion terminology and assessment adaptations; confidence levels around teaching students with learning disabilities increased
	Cook (2002)	Inclusive Attitudes, Strengths, and Weaknesses of Preservice General Educators Enrolled in a Curriculum Infusion Teacher Preparation Program	Attitudes toward inclusion vary according to the aspect of inclusion and the type of disability; preservice teachers reported that their preparation was inadequate; attitudes did not necessarily increase with year of teacher preparation
	Ford, Pugach, & Otis-Wilborn (2001)	Preparing General Educators to Work Well with Students Who Have Disabilities: What’s Reasonable at the Preservice Level?	Results of collaborative partnership between general and special education faculty generated five outcomes deemed reasonable for general education graduates
	Lombardi & Hunka (2001)	Preparing General Education Teachers for Inclusive Classrooms: Assessing the Process	Five-year preservice teacher education program has “some degree of effectiveness”; recommended an integrated special education strand into teacher education programs
	Van Laarhoven, Munk, Lynch, Bosma, & Rouse (2007)	A Model for Preparing Special and General Education Preservice Teachers of Inclusive Education	All candidates improved content knowledge and attitudinal scores; students participating in Project ACCEPT are more prepared for inclusive education
	Arthaud, Aram, Breck, Doelling, & Bushrow (2007)	Developing Collaboration Skills in Preservice Teachers: A Partnership Between General and Special Education	Preservice teachers and special and general education faculty benefited from the collaborative seminar; students learned more about barriers of collaboration and were more appreciative of the intervention planning team
Collaborative Course Delivery	Kluth & Straut	Do As We Say <i>And</i> As	Students used collaboration in

(2003)	We Do: Teaching and Modeling Collaborative Practice in the University Classroom	their own practice if they saw it modeled in the university classroom; Teacher educators should engage in collaborative partnerships and model collaboration, seek institutional support, and study future collaborations
Patterson, Syverud, & Seabrooks-Blackmore (2008)	A Call for Collaboration: Not Jack of All Trades Intro to Special Education Collaborative course delivery	Benefited both teacher candidates and faculty; students appreciated varied teaching styles and reported valuing being taught by “the experts”; supported new faculty through mentoring and increased time for other research

*Adding a Dual Program.* Teacher educators at the University of Colorado at Denver and Health Sciences Center (Sobel, Iccaman-Sands, & Basile, 2007) and San Francisco State University (Wolfberg, LePage, & Cook, 2009) created dual programs to support general and special educators (see Table 2.3). Sobel, et al. (2007) conducted a program analysis to examine their urban teacher education program that merged preparation for general and special education teachers. In general, teacher candidates had a positive disposition toward educating students with disabilities. Instead of preparing teachers using a stand-alone course, Sobel and her colleagues documented the integration of two licensure programs that infused special education content. Using a “backwards design” approach (see Wiggins & McTighe, 2005), they redesigned the program to include 10 core courses (24 credits) taken by special and general educators. Compared to the previous 3-credit, introductory course, students in the special education program reported being able to more actively collaborate with the general education peers and general educators felt more prepared to support students with disabilities in their classrooms. Nine of 12 faculty members surveyed reported that the restructured coursework supported diversity and provided opportunities to enhance their content

knowledge. The researchers explicitly stated that this type of programmatic fusion sent a strong message to schools, principals, teachers – that effective preparation of all teachers to serve students with disabilities begins within IHEs.

Wolfberg, LePage, & Cook (2009) described their program at San Francisco State University which allows teachers to earn credentials in elementary, special, and bilingual education. The program is cohort-based and “designed with a common, clear vision of inclusive practice” (Wolfberg et al., 2009, p. 22). Students completed 180 hours of clinical work in each of the three areas as part of a 62-unit program. In all, the program graduated 79 students by 2010, but reported limited results. Graduates who earned the dual credential explained they felt “prepared to meet the challenges of children with special needs in inclusive settings,” and reported, “they could not imagine working in a special education setting without general education content or working in general education setting without special education content. Both were important” (p. 18). Both programs, although relatively new, reported the positive effects of combining special and general education pedagogy and content.

*Modify Existing Course or Infusion.* The five studies that follow examined the results of infusing special education coursework, typically including inclusive and/or collaborative practices (see Table 2.3). Like Sobel et al. (2007), Ford, Pugach, and Otis-Wilborn (2001) generated five reasonable outcomes for general education graduates using principles from “backward design.” Outcomes included: (a) being “committed to teaching the full range of learners with disabilities;” (b) understanding disabilities and having an appreciation; (c) “effectively teach and make routine accommodations for students with IEPs;” (d) “prepared to work within an inclusive classroom and a



collaborative teaching structure;” and, (e) “demonstrate awareness of political, social and historical context of special education” (p. 278). Ford et al. (2001) documented the process of identifying these outcomes throughout the restructuring of the elementary/middle grade teacher preparation program at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee (UWM). While UWM’s program, the Collaborative Program, did not face faculty resistance, there were other challenges during implementation. For example, they had difficulty employing faculty who could teach both content and pedagogy in special and general education. Unlike Sobel et al. (2007) and Wolfberg et al. (2009) who value dual programs, Ford et al. (2001) explained, “it is crucial to hold general education as a constant, as the active backdrop against which the practice of differentiated special education occurs” (p. 284); Ford et al. (2001) view this preparation as overlapping in places, but still distinct.

Four studies (Brown, Welsh, Haegle Hill, & Cipko, 2008; Cook, 2002; Lombardi & Hunka, 2001; Van Laarhoven, Munk, Lynch, Bosma, & Rouse, 2007) examined preservice teachers’ knowledge and attitudes after participating in an infused program. Brown et al. (2008) surveyed 208 West Chester University of Pennsylvania teacher candidates (20% were special education majors) who took a general education assessment course that integrated instruction about test adaptations. Researchers found that this embedded instruction significantly increased preservice teachers’ knowledge of inclusion terminology and assessment adaptations and confidence levels around teaching students with learning disabilities improved by 60 percent (as compared to the comparison group). Using the *Opinions Relative to Integration of Students with Disabilities* scale, Cook (2002) surveyed 181 undergraduate students who took four

seminar courses that covered a variety of topics, including special education and inclusion in their general education preparation program. Results from the study showed that preservice teachers had more positive attitudes toward students with learning disabilities, but their attitudes toward inclusion varied according to the aspect of inclusion and the type of disability (e.g. students with learning disabilities were rated higher than students with multiple disabilities). Cook (2002) also found that attitudes did not necessarily increase with each year of teacher preparation and that, overall, preservice teachers reported their preparation was inadequate. He wrote, “these preservice general educators possess insufficient relevant experiences and knowledge” (p. 274) with regard to inclusive instruction. Further recommendations included creating more time in teacher education programs to cover all necessary areas and continued research on the results of infusion programs. Lombardi and Hunka (2001) conducted qualitative research at West Virginia University to measure the confidence and competencies of 72 students and 11 non-special education faculty who participated in the special education strand within the five-year teacher preparation program. Results from a questionnaire suggested, “the program’s integration of the special education strand has had some degree of effectiveness in providing educators with information relevant to working with special needs students in general classrooms” (p. 192). However, results from the fifth year are not available, but researchers believe that their field work during their final year will be prove to be essential to generate “the satisfactory level of preparedness for working with special needs students” (p. 193). The need to infuse special education coursework and fieldwork was the major recommendation from this study. Finally, Van Laarhoven, Munk, Lynch, Bosma, and Rouse (2007) described and reported results from Project

ACCEPT (Achieving Creative & Collaborative Educational Preservice Teams), a voluntary project at Northern Illinois University. Fifty-three participants (over two semesters) in Project ACCEPT completed a 10-hour institute, met 3 hours weekly, and completed a 6-hour field experience. Using curricular probes and attitudinal surveys, Van Laarhoven et al. (2007) collected data during the first year of implementation. Like Lombardi and Hunka (2001), Project ACCEPT did have positive effects on the abilities and attitudes of preservice teachers. The fieldwork requirement, according to Van Laarhoven et al. (2007), was a “critical component of the project” (p. 453). All of the four studies reviewed above purport the positive effects of the infusion of special education coursework on the attitudes and knowledge of general education teachers. Further, they all call for further research to try to capture these varying initiatives within IHEs, as their results will impact teacher preparation programs.

*Collaborative Course Delivery.* Three studies (see Table 2.3) examined how collaborative course delivery, like co-teaching, impacted teacher education programs at Missouri State University (Arthaud, Aram, Breck, Doelling, & Bushrow, 2007), Syracuse University (Kluth & Straut, 2003), and the University of North Florida (Patterson, Syverud, & Seabrooks-Blackmore, 2008). First, Arthaud et al. (2007) described the Collaboration Seminar based on a case study approach, created by general (n=3) and special education (n=3) faculty. Within the Seminar, both general and special education preservice teachers are introduced to the collaborative process used to plan intervention and instruction. Then, they work on multiple “real life” cases throughout the course of the semester. Participants’ survey data revealed preservice teachers “learned more about barriers to collaboration and welcomed the opportunity to practice their future role as an

intervention team member... they valued the opportunity to address a real problem and attempt to problem-solve” (Arthaud et al., 2007, p. 8). Faculty members, who modeled collaboration throughout the planning and implementation of the Seminar, reported they benefited from the opportunity to share and learn from their colleagues. Second, Kluth and Straut (2003) documented their collaboration and integration of two courses at Syracuse University. Based on their course evaluations and experiences, five key recommendations for teacher educators are reported: “model a variety of collaborations; make collaborations transparent; model the good, the bad, and the ugly of their work; think “out of the collaborative box,” seek institutional support, and study their experiences” (Kluth & Straut, 2003, p. 235). Finally, Patterson, Syverud, and Seabrooks-Blackmore (2008) described a faculty collaboration model of a 16-week introductory special education course at the University of North Florida. Using course evaluations, like Kluth and Straut (2003), the authors reported that “students got the ‘big picture,’” (p. 20) instead of a single perspective. Contributing faculty members also said they benefited from this course delivery model; for example, it supported new faculty through mentoring and increased time for other research.

The drawbacks of adding a course or the infusion of specialized content and pedagogy into general education courses, discussed previously in terms of preparing teachers to educate LDS, include the extension of time students are enrolled in programs and increased time, willingness, and energy by teacher education faculty (Costa et al., 2005). Preparing special educators by adding a minor or certificate or creating programmatic prerequisites, now more recently used to prepare teachers to educate LDS, have already been in place. However, the preparation of general and special educators has

historically been separate. The creation of dual programs addresses the need to create a collaborative environment in which to prepare all teachers to serve students with and without disabilities. Some teacher education programs do not have the capacity or interest in creating dual programs. Others have begun to generate co-taught or collaborative teaching models within IHEs who have two existing tracks to prepare teachers, in general and special education. Still others (e.g. Winter, 2006) recommended combining stand-alone introductory special education courses with embedding instruction across all subject areas. Similar to the structural changes discussed to prepare teachers to educate LDS, teacher education faculty and preservice teachers must value inclusion and the benefits of educating all students in their LRE, ideally the general education classroom. Without such beliefs, making structural changes within teacher preparation programs are fruitless.

After reviewing the literature on preparing preservice teachers to educate LDS and students with disabilities, it appears that the more courses taken, the better we presume preservice teachers' knowledge and attitudes toward LDS and students with disabilities. The coursework to educate both of these diverse groups are unique and need specialized attention within teacher preparation programs. On the whole, those programs that integrated some level of coursework in one or both areas reported that their teachers had more positive attitudes and perceived themselves to be more equipped to serve LDS and students who receive special education.

#### What Are Teachers' Attitudes about Language and Students who Are Linguistically Diverse?

Teacher attitudes matter and can transfer into actions within classrooms. These actions can support or deny LDS' education and their civil rights (Losen & Orfield, 2002). Attitudes matter to all students, regardless of their culture or language. In fact, the

ways teachers affirm (or do not affirm) diversity and the integration of different languages within their classroom, even if their classrooms are homogeneous, have direct implications for their students. While there is conflicting research about the impact of teacher education and early teaching experiences on teachers' attitudes (Hersh, Hull, & Leighton, 1982; Zeichner, 1980), researchers agree that, regardless of when, where or how attitudes are generated, teachers' attitudes have a direct effect on students' motivation, self-esteem, and educational outcomes (Cummins, 2000; Nieto, 1999). This relationship between teachers' attitudes and actions is interactive and dynamic in that it is impossible to understand students' motivation without understanding the nature of teacher attitudes.

Since these relationships are inextricably tied to the academic and personal successes of LDS, it is important to understand the role of teachers' attitudes in the education process. In a search for studies about teachers' attitudes with regard to teaching students with linguistic diversity, research identified two groups of teachers, inservice and preservice, and their respective attitudes. There was one study that discussed inservice teachers' perceptions towards teaching LDS and four which measured inservice teachers' attitudes towards language and LDS. Perceived ideas about LDS are included in this review because they are integral to teachers' generation of attitudes. Five studies discussed preservice teachers' attitudes, with regard to their interaction with teacher education coursework and programs. In all, ten studies about teachers' attitudes toward language, linguistic diversity, and LDS are reviewed.

### *Inservice Teachers' Attitudes*

The first of the following four studies reveals the perceptions inservice teachers have about the specific challenges of educating LDS. The remaining four examines inservice teachers' attitudes toward language and LDS. Table 2.4 displays research conducted with teachers in the following states: Arizona, Idaho, Utah, Michigan, North Dakota, and Virginia. In all cases, teachers were surveyed and in the case of Walker, Shafer and Iiams (2004), teacher interviews were also conducted.

Table 2.4

#### *Studies of Inservice Teachers' Attitudes*

Author, Year	Study	Purpose/Question	Findings
Byrnes, Kiger & Manning (1996; 1997)	Social Psychological Correlates of Teachers' Language Attitudes	What are general education teachers' (N=169) attitudes toward linguistic diversity and LDS?	Teachers (from Arizona, Utah and Virginia) with more positive attitudes toward LDS had: (a) participated in formal, organized training to teach LDS; (b) completed a graduate degree; and, (c) came from geographic regions where legislature to support LDS was present.
Karabenick and Noda's (2004)	Professional Development Implications of Teachers' Beliefs and Attitudes Toward ELLs	Teachers' (N=729) beliefs, practices, and needs related to ELLs; attitudinal changes	Teachers had favorable attitudes toward LDS; 70% reported LDS would be welcome in their classrooms.
Walker, Shafer & Iiams (2004)	"Not in My Classroom": Teacher Attitudes Towards English Language Learners in the Mainstream Classroom	General education teachers' (N=422) attitudes toward linguistic diversity and LDS	Attitudes towards LDS were largely neutral, but then spanned to strongly negative; Negative attitudes were not necessarily apparent at the onset of teaching, rather appeared when teachers were unprepared or unsupported; results were largely neutral and, have a chance to be influenced and changed.

Youngs & Youngs (2001)	Predictors of Mainstream Teachers' Attitudes Toward ESL Students	To identify predictors of general education teachers' (N=143) attitudes toward language diversity	Predictors included: (a) coursework in multicultural education or learning a second language; (b) working with LDS; (c) personal experience abroad; and, (d) specific training to educate LDS.
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Byrnes and Kiger's (1994) creation of the *Language Attitudes of Teachers Scale* (LATS) was the first of its kind to address the complexities of teachers' language attitudes. The 13-question scale includes language attitude questions that target political factors, tolerance of students and ways to support language in the classroom. The preliminary results of this 191-teacher survey suggested, "to the extent that teachers' attitudes can facilitate or be a barrier to learning English for [LDS], it is important to understand the structure of teachers' attitudes to work toward constructive change" (p. 231). This study served as a springboard for subsequent research. Byrnes, Kiger and Manning (1996, 1997) surveyed 169 teachers from Arizona, Utah and Virginia and determined teachers with more positive attitudes toward LDS had: (a) participated in formal, organized training to teach LDS; (b) completed a graduate degree; and, (c) came from geographic regions where legislature to support LDS was present. This study reaffirms the belief that context does matter.

Using the LATS, Youngs and Youngs (2001) tried to identify predictors of general education teachers' attitudes toward language diversity. One hundred forty-three middle school teachers with an average of 15.5 years of teaching experience reported having a "neutral or slightly positive attitude" towards teaching LDS in the future. Their findings suggested that predictors of positive attitudes included: (a) coursework in multicultural education or learning a second language; (b) working with LDS; (c)



personal experience abroad; and, (d) specific training to educate LDS. The authors purport that teachers who have negative or racist attitudes about LDS often fail to meet their students' academic needs.

Four hundred and twenty-two, Midwestern, general education teachers' attitudes toward LDS, factors contributing to their attitudinal development, and the variation in attitudes based on school demographics were studied in a mixed method study by Walker, Shafer and Iiams (2004). Like Youngs and Youngs (2001), teachers' attitudes towards LDS were largely neutral, as measured by a researcher-generated survey, but then spanned to strongly negative, regardless of school demographics. For example, 87 percent of teachers never received professional development or training to work with LDS and 51 percent reported not being interested in training if it became available. Further, 70 percent of general education teachers were not actively interested in having LDS in their classrooms. Paradoxically, 62 percent of teachers felt their schools welcomed LDS and 78 percent felt LDS brought needed diversity to schools. The authors, intrigued by these findings, offer social desirability as a plausible reason for such positive comments on diversity. The authors report on the following themes which impact teachers' attitudes: (a) lack of time; (b) lack of training; (c) the influence of negative administrator attitudes; (d) misnomers about effectively educating LDS; (e) the ideology of "common sense;" and, (f) ethnocentric bias. In sum, Walker et al. (2004) argued that negative attitudes were not necessarily apparent at the onset of teaching, but rather appeared when "unprepared and unsupported teachers encounter[ed] challenges" (p. 153) working with LDS. The results of this study were largely neutral and, according

to the authors, participants have a chance to be influenced and changed. They recommend sufficient training for educators who serve LDS.

Of the four studies reviewed, results from Karabenick and Noda's (2004) study were the most positive. The authors surveyed 729 general education Detroit teachers' attitudes in order to determine appropriate future professional development. Forty-five percent of teachers surveyed were tenured over 20 years and 88 percent of teachers taught LDS at some point in their career. In contrast to Walker et al. (2004), Karabenick and Noda (2004) found teachers in this district to have favorable attitudes toward LDS. Seventy percent reported LDS would be welcome in their classrooms. Like Walker et al. (2004) and Karabenick and Noda (2004), high frequencies of neutral or uncertain attitudes were reported, as well as considerable variability. The authors reported teachers with more accepting attitudes of LDS believed: (a) a student's first language proficiency positively impacts learning in a second language; (b) bilingualism and bilingual education are beneficial; (c) comprehension is not necessarily impacted by lack of fluency in a second language; and, (d) working with LDS does not consume extra teacher time or district resources.

*Preservice Teachers' Attitudes: Impact of Teacher Education Courses and Programs*

Four of the five identified studies (Friedman, 2002; Mora and Grisham, 2001; Olson & Jimenez-Silva, 2008; Salas, Flores, & Smith, 2005) examined specific teacher education programs and the teacher candidates they graduate. The fifth (Tatto, 1996) comprehensively reviews nine teacher education programs from the late 1980s. The attitudes of preservice teachers from Arizona State University, San Diego State University, Boston College, and a university in southern Texas are reviewed (see Table

2.5). It is important to note that three studies were produced in states where policies were enacted, beginning in the late 1990s, to mandate English-only instruction for students with linguistic diversity. The political backdrop in which teachers' attitudes are surveyed surely contextualizes their responses and thus serves as an analytic lens.

Table 2.5

*Studies of Preservice Teachers' Attitudes*

Author, Year	Study	Purpose/Question	Findings
Friedman (2002)	What I Would've Liked to Know: Preservice teachers' experiences in urban schools	What are Boston College preservice teachers' (N=8) experiences in secondary, urban schools?	Teachers reported that coursework in alternative assessment and instruction for bilingual learners, and, minimal proficiency or more in a second language to develop and provide instruction may have enhanced their teaching practice.
Mora & Grisham (2001)	What deliches tortillas! Preparing teachers for literacy instruction in linguistically diverse classrooms	What are fifth year students' attitudes after infusing the CLAD credential content into a literacy methods course?	The course restructuring improved preservice teachers' abilities to "identify linguistic factors in literacy learning and pinpoint appropriate instructional intervention strategies."
Olson & Jimenez-Silva (2008)	The Campfire Effect: A Preliminary Analysis of Preservice Teachers' Beliefs about teaching ELLs after State-Mandated Endorsement Courses	Does endorsement policy change preservice teachers' (N=72) beliefs and attitudes about ELLs?	Teachers overwhelmingly reported that endorsement courses positively impacted their "confidence and underlying ideological beliefs."
Salas, Flores & Smith (2005)	Preservice Teachers' Attitudes Toward Language Diversity in South Texas	Do preservice teachers (N=518) have differing attitudes toward language diversity?; Do ethnicity, birthplace, bilingualism, and age influence preservice teachers' attitudes toward language diversity?	Ethnicity, bilingualism, the interaction of birthplace and ethnicity, and the interaction of birthplace, age and bilingualism mediate attitudes toward language diversity; moderate preservice teachers' attitudes toward language diversity across all ethnic groups
Tatto (1996)	Examining Values and Beliefs About Teaching Diverse Students: Understanding the Challenges for Teacher Education	Can teacher education programs impact teachers' beliefs and attitudes about diverse learners?	Programs with socially constructed norms were more powerful; structural changes need to take place in order for teacher education programs to successfully change the ways preservice teachers view

Olson and Jimenez-Silva (2008) examined the influence of Arizona's mandated Structured English Immersion (SEI) endorsement policy on preservice teachers from Arizona State University. Proposition 203 in Arizona (2000), similar to Proposition 227 in California (1998), called for elimination of native language instruction, replaced by SEI. In Arizona, inservice teachers were to receive 50 hours of SEI training while preservice teachers took two semesters of SEI coursework prior to student teaching. All of these endeavors were in an effort to support all teachers as they serve linguistically diverse populations. While 72 preservice teachers overwhelmingly reported that endorsement courses positively impacted their "confidence and underlying ideological beliefs" (p. 246) about LDS, the authors questioned whether or not the mandated endorsement will make enough of a difference as teachers move into the field.

In California, Mora and Grisham (2001) studied fifth year students' attitudes after infusing the CLAD credential content into subject-specific methods course. The course restructure, according to the two San Diego State University teacher educators, improved preservice teachers' abilities to "identify linguistic factors in literacy learning and pinpoint appropriate instructional intervention strategies" (p. 68). The authors push for further work to be done to adequately prepare teachers to serve LDS in all content areas.

In Massachusetts, unlike Arizona and California, there was no endorsement policy in place when Friedman (2002) studied eight secondary preservice teachers from Boston College and their preparation to teach urban students in general education classrooms. The students participating in the qualitative case studies reported the following as aspects within a teacher education program that may have enhanced their teaching practice: (a)

coursework in alternative assessment and instruction for bilingual learners, and, (b) minimal proficiency or more in a second language to develop and provide instruction. This research provided information to the teacher education faculty so they could make changes within the program. Changes included systemic and reflective inquiry practices for preservice teachers throughout the program, and increased Education and Arts and Sciences faculty collaboration. Friedman (2002) also contends that preservice teachers need to receive coursework that integrates theory and practice in order to effectively teach LDS. In light of the political backdrop, she also recommends providing teachers with opportunities to discuss and problem-solve how to negotiate school cultures and political structures.

Using the LATS, Salas, Flores and Smith (2005) surveyed 518 generalist preservice teachers in southern Texas (San Antonio) before taking a multicultural education course. Like Byrnes and colleagues (1997), this correlation study found moderate preservice teachers' attitudes toward language diversity. The survey mean was 31.96; scores less than 13 indicated a strong intolerant attitude and scores greater than 65 indicated strong tolerance, therefore, 51% of those surveyed had a mean score of 32 or less. Living in a bilingual city like San Antonio did not create higher degrees of positive attitude toward linguistic diversity. Salas et al. (2005) reported ethnicity, bilingualism, the interaction of birthplace and identity, and the interaction of birthplace, age, and bilingualism as attitude mediators toward LDS. Since findings were moderate for all ethnic groups, the authors recognized the need for language diversity training for all preservice teachers, regardless of ethnicity.

Tatto (1996) completed an analysis of nine education programs approximately 10 years before the four previous studies. Using survey data from the Teacher Education and Learning to Teach (TELT) study, Tatto used a hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) technique to examine whether or not teacher education programs between 1985 and 1990 could influence the values and beliefs of preservice teaching, including those attitudes about language and linguistic diversity. Analyzing the responses of faculty and student teachers/graduates, Tatto used HLM to test the degree of correlation between faculty views and student teachers' views, as well as faculty views and graduates' views. Then, using the self-report data from the institutions, Tatto created profiles of the teacher education programs – those with social constructivist tendencies and those deemed “conventional.” Tatto found programs with shared understanding to reach a common goal were deemed more influential and programs with socially constructed norms were more powerful. In general, Tatto warns that structural changes need to take place in order for teacher education programs to successfully change the ways preservice teachers view diverse learners:

Although teacher education faculty and enrollees across the programs studied subscribe to ideals of social justice and fairness in regard to teaching diverse learners, it is less clear how they translate these ideals into their views concerning curriculum design and implementation, assessment of student progress, and classroom and school organization. Our findings indicate that lay culture norms among enrollees are strongly ingrained and that most teacher education, as it is currently structured, is a weak intervention to alter particular views regarding the teaching and management of diverse learners (1996, p. 155).

Data from the TELT study offer insight into teacher education programs in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The authors of these recent studies of teacher education programs grapple with programmatic change to improve outcomes for LDS. This challenge of institutions to educate predominately white, middle-class females to teach linguistically and culturally diverse students is not new (Zeichner, 1993). However, there continue to be examples of ways to address this ongoing challenge, most evident through systematic coursework that integrates theory with practice.

While Friedman (2002), Olson and Jimenez-Silva (2008), and Mora and Grisham (2001) used qualitative data analysis, Salas et al. (2005) used quantitative methods to analyze teachers' attitudes. Each has merits in their approach and yields interesting information about different types of teacher attitudes, but missing from this review are studies that combine these methodological approaches to gather an even fuller picture. The fifth study (Tatto, 1996) is a comprehensive review, which also uses quantitative methods, to determine the influence of teacher education programs on attitudes.

While language, contextual and pedagogical content knowledge is essential when preparing general education teachers to educate LDS, it is also important to simultaneously support teachers as they examine their attitudes about LDS (Bartolomé, 2004). The integration of knowledge through coursework as well as that gained by examining the knowledge of self within a sociocultural and sociopolitical perspective should add to teachers' university-based instruction.

The documentation of teachers' attitudes about language and LDS during the last twenty years is minimal. Since 1994, when Byrnes and Kiger created the LATS, few researchers have used or disseminated the results about teachers' specific language

attitudes. The scarcity of such research, as well as the generally neutral results, can further exacerbate issues around preparing teacher candidates and supporting inservice teachers to educate LDS. This body of research concludes that if teachers have neutral or negative attitudes toward LDS, students will not receive adequate and appropriate education, a civil right intended for all students.

Although there is limited body of research on preservice and inservice teachers' attitudes toward language, the recommendations reviewed are consistent. First, specific coursework for general education teachers to provide connections between theory and practice in order to educate LDS do matter (Batt, 2008; Friedman, 2002; Olson & Jimenez-Silva, 2008; Mora & Grisham, 2001). Second, teacher education programs that make modifications to better support general education teachers to educate LDS report that their graduates show improved attitudes (Friedman, 2002; Olson & Jimenez-Silva, 2008; Mora & Grisham, 2001). Third, teachers' attitudes about language and LDS are complex for both for inservice and preservice teachers (Byrnes & Kiger, 1994; Friedman, 2002; Karabenick & Noda, 2004; Tatto, 1996; Walker, Shafer & Iiams, 2004; Youngs & Youngs, 2001). Finally, the attitudes of preservice and inservice teachers tend to vary. In order to best serve LDS, researchers recommend addressing linguistic attitudes from the outset, to move away from such neutrality, toward more positive attitudes; teachers' self-reflection, systematic review and examination of teachers' attitudes should take place in teacher education programs as well as continue throughout the lifetime of teaching careers.

In addition to the recommendations reported above, it is important to identify two specific attitudes associated with *teaching* LDS. The two attitudes are: (a) affirming



views of bilingualism and language diversity and (b) knowledge of the sociopolitical aspects of language education and use.

The first essential attitude involved in teaching LDS is having affirming views of bilingualism and language diversity. Teachers with affirming attitudes toward their students, their cultures and their languages play critical roles in the engagement and outcomes of LDS (Nieto, 2000; Valdés, 2001; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). These attitudes can affect teachers' motivation to engage LDS, which can render higher student motivation and positively impact academic outcomes (Karabenick & Noda, 2004). Linguistic diversity needs to be viewed as a benefit instead of a deficit (Harry & Klingner, 2007).

Second, knowledge of the sociopolitical aspects of language education and use is essential as teachers educate LDS. Villegas and Lucas (2002) describe a teacher's "sociocultural consciousness" as the awareness that their worldview is influenced by class, race and gender. Further, different sociocultural groups have different worldviews and the worldviews of people in some groups are valued more than others. Understanding the power that some languages have over others, based on worldviews is essential as teachers examine their own attitudes about language.

While there is no true hierarchical language structure, the dominant language in social contexts is the most powerful (Caldes & Caron-Caldes, 2000; Delpit, 1995). It is important for teachers to be aware of this as their students navigate through the social contexts of today's classrooms. Finally, Bartolomé's (2004) concept of "ideological clarity" asks teachers to evaluate their personal beliefs, attitudes and assumptions about LDS. This type of clarity is "the process by which individuals struggle to identify and

compare their own explanations for the existing socioeconomic and political hierarchy with the dominant society's" (Bartolomé, 2004, p. 98). Collectively, gaining broader knowledge about the sociopolitical context of language education in addition to having affirmative views of language diversity will allow general education teachers to better understand and serve students with linguistic diversity.

This section of the review examined research about teachers' attitudes of language and LDS. The attitudes inservice and preservice teachers have about language and students with linguistic diversity can vary, but researchers have identified two necessary attitudes, including affirming views of bilingualism and language diversity and knowledge of the sociopolitical aspects of language education and use. These attitudes, coupled with specific language and general teacher knowledge, will allow teachers to best serve LDS. The next section of the review examines teachers' attitudes about students who receive special education services. Teachers' attitudes about language and LDS as well as about the students with disabilities in their general education classrooms are both of great importance for this study.

#### What Are Teachers' Attitudes About Students Who Receive Special Education?

In the same way that teachers' attitudes about language and LDS can directly impact the education of LDS, teachers' attitudes toward students who receive special education have direct implications for teaching and learning. A complex relationship continues to be documented, between positive attitudes of teachers and effective learning by students with disabilities who are included and educated in general education classrooms (e.g., Brantlinger, 1996; D'Alonzo, Giordano, & Vanleeuwen, 1997). This relationship exists within an equally complex political context.

Since the passing of the Individuals with Disabilities Act (IDEA) in 1990 and then it's more recent reauthorization in 2004, Individuals with Disabilities Improvement Act (IDEIA), more and more students have been placed in general education classrooms for longer periods of time<sup>2</sup>. In fact, 13 percent of school enrollment in the U.S. received special education services (USDOE, 2010) and the amount of time spent in general education classrooms increased significantly. In 1989-1990, 31.7 percent of students receiving special education services spent 80% or more of their instructional time in general education classrooms, compared to 53.7 percent in 2007-2008 (USDOE, 2010). This increase places students who require special education services in general education classrooms with more frequency. There, students have increased contact with general education teachers and receive the majority of their instruction.

In 1996, Scruggs and Mastropieri published a synthesis (28 studies) of teacher attitudes of inclusion, which took place from 1958-1995. They found that two-thirds of surveyed teachers had positive attitudes toward inclusion and about half felt that inclusion could provide some benefits. However, only 25 percent of teachers said they had appropriate resources and training to implement inclusionary practices. Of interest, the authors did not find any relationships between attitudes and geographic regions or attitudes and the year of the study. This section of the review examined studies that took place since Scruggs and Mastropieri's seminal study.

Because the majority of students who receive special education services are spending a significant amount of time in general education classrooms, it is important to understand the role of teachers' attitudes of inclusion as well as the students who are included. Like the previous section, research identified two groups of teachers, inservice

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<sup>2</sup> This used to be referred to as "mainstreaming," or more recently, as "inclusion" movements.

and preservice, and their respective attitudes. Four studies examined preservice teachers attitudes and two others combined preservice teachers with novice teachers. Four studies discussed inservice teachers and looked at both general and special education teachers. Three other studies looked at inservice teachers' attitudes, but used the constructs within the Theory of Instructional Tolerance (Gerber, 1988). In all, thirteen studies about teachers' attitudes toward inclusion and students who receive special education were reviewed.

### *Preservice Teachers' Attitudes*

Studies in this subsection included preservice teachers' attitudes about inclusion (see Table 2.6). Garriott, Miller, & Snyder's (2003) study examined 239 preservice teachers' attitudes about inclusive education. During their first day of "Introduction to Education," students completed a questionnaire, which asked where they believed students with mild disabilities should be educated. This was the first course of their teacher preparation program and their majors follow: 34 percent in elementary education, 10 middle level education, 33 percent secondary education, and 19 percent special education. Participants were directly asked if they thought students with disabilities should be educated in general education classrooms or in special education classrooms, as well as their rationale. Results showed that while students had positive attitudes about inclusive education, nearly half (45%) believed students with mild disabilities should be educated in the special education classroom. Preservice teachers who reported in this way identified with rationales like, students with disabilities "receive more individualized attention in a special education classroom," or "might distract typical students if included in the general education classroom" (p. 51). Fifty-five percent of participants believed

students with mild disabilities should be educated in the general education classroom.

Their rationales included: “Special education students should not be ostracized” or

“benefits exist for both general and special education students” (p. 51).

Table 2.6

*Studies of Preservice Teachers’ Attitudes – Inclusion*

Author, Year	Study	Purpose/Question	Findings
Garriott, Miller, & Snyder (2003)	Preservice Teachers’ Beliefs About Inclusive Education: What Should Teacher Educators Know?	Where do preservice teachers ( $N=239$ ) believe students with mild disabilities should be educated and why do they hold this belief?	Students had positive attitudes about inclusive education, but nearly half (45%) believed students with mild disabilities should be educated in the special education classroom – participants were relatively divided on this issue
Shade & Stewart (2001)	General Education and Special Education Preservice Teachers’ Attitudes Toward Inclusion	Do preservice teachers’ ( $N=194$ ) attitudes change after taking an introductory course in special education?	A single course significantly changed preservice (general and special) teachers’ attitudes toward the inclusion of students with mild disabilities in general education classrooms; attitudes about where students should be educated did not significantly change
Shippen, Crites, Houchins, Ramsey, & Simon (2005)	Preservice Teachers’ Perceptions of Including Students with Disabilities	What are teachers’ ( $N=236$ ) perceptions of serving students with special needs in general education settings before and after an introductory course in special education?	An introductory course significantly changed the attitudes of preservice general and special educators; teachers in the dual certification program were more receptive and less anxious than others before and after the course; teacher training programs must include cross training and coursework in collaboration
Yellin, Yellin, Claypool, Mokhtari, Carr, Latiker, Risley, & Szabo (2003)	“I’m Not Sure I Can Handle the Kids, Especially, The Uh, You Know Special Ed Kids”	Does preservice teachers’ ( $N=55$ ) exposure to students with special needs in a general education classroom – during a semester-long field placement – improve attitudes towards inclusion?	Preservice teachers report having a “generally positive attitude” toward students with disabilities, regardless of group; No differences among groups regarding the benefits of integration, integrated classroom management, or perceived ability to teach students with disabilities; Exposure through a field-based experience is not enough – exposure does not increase attitudes; must integrate more special education

Shade and Stewart (2001) examined the attitudes of general ( $N=122$ ) and special education ( $N=72$ ) teachers' attitudes toward inclusion after a required, 30-hour introductory special education course. Students had not yet completed their student teaching experiences and all were enrolled in the teacher preparation program. A 48-item pre- and post-survey assessed students' responses to statements about inclusion and working with students with disabilities in general education classrooms. The researchers reported statistically significant positive changes in preservice attitudes – both general and special education teachers. However, preservice attitudes about where students should be educated (in or out of the general education classroom) did not significantly change. Based on these results, the authors recommended additional training for all preservice and inservice teachers.

Like Shade and Stewart (2001), Shippen, Crites, Houchins, Ramsey, and Simon (2005) looked at the effects of an introductory special education course on the attitudes of preservice teachers ( $N=326$ ) from three universities (two from the southeast and one from the mid-Atlantic). Forty-six percent were future general education teachers, 29 percent were future special educators, and 21% were future dually certified (special and general) educators. Students completed the Preservice Inclusion Survey (PSIS), which included an inclusion scenario and adjectives to describe a student with a disability, to examine students' hostility/receptivity and anxiety/calmness. They found that the course significantly reduced the negative attitudes of hostility and anxiety toward students with disabilities in general education classrooms. It is important to note that students who were in the dual certification program were more receptive and less anxious than others before

and after the course. The authors recommended measuring the impact of redesigning teacher preparation programs to address teachers' attitudes toward inclusion.

While Shade and Stewart (2001) and Shippen et al. (2005) examined the impact of an introductory course, Yellin, Yellin, Claypool, Mokhtari, Carr, Latiker, Risley, and Szabo (2003) studied 55 preservice elementary education teachers' attitudes toward inclusion. The 55 participants were enrolled in one of three sections of an elementary methods course at Oklahoma State University, taught in two formats – traditionally and a field-based format. Two sections were taught on campus and the third, experimental group was taught on-site at the neighborhood K-5 school. As part of their experience, the experimental group spent an additional 300 hours (three days a week) in the field, observing teachers, working with small groups of students, and attending content area lectures. All participants completed the 25-item pre- and post “Opinions Relative to the Integration of Students with Disabilities” survey (see Antonak and Larrivee, 1995). Results from the studied showed no differences among groups regarding the benefits of integration, integrated classroom management, or perceived ability to teach students with disabilities. Additionally, preservice teachers reported having a generally positive attitude toward students with disabilities, regardless of group. The authors argued that exposure to students with disabilities through field-based experiences are not enough to change their attitudes. Instead, they called for specific, integrated special education coursework for their teacher candidates.

All four studies provided some insight about preservice teachers' attitudes. Three studies (Shade & Stewart, 2001; Shippen et. al, 2005; Yellin et. al, 2003) examined the impact of an introductory special education course and provided evidence that attitudes

were more positive after course completion. Yellin et al. (2003) found no differences between groups of students who took coursework on-site versus on-campus, acknowledging that exposure to students who receive special education was not enough to significantly improve attitudes. While Garriott, Miller, and Snyder (2003) found generally positive attitudes among teachers, almost half of the participants felt students who received special education should be taught outside the general education classroom. Similarly, Shade and Stewart's (2001) participants' attitudes increased after taking the course, but there were no changes to where students who receive special education should be educated. In general, introductory special education courses seem to have significantly positive effects on preservice teachers.

#### *Preservice and Novice Teachers' Attitudes*

This subsection includes two studies, which combined preservice and novice teachers' attitudes about inclusion (see Table 2.7). Most recently, Berry (2010) examined teachers' ( $N=60$ ) attitudes toward inclusion, instructional accommodations, and fairness. Using the Q-Method (see Donner, 2001), the researcher scored participants' responses to 24 statements about the three aforementioned areas. The participants were 43 preservice teachers and 17 novice teachers (with less than five years of teaching experience) who completed a graduate special education survey course. Results showed that participants' responses loaded significantly onto one or more of the three identified factors: (a) keen, but anxious, beginners (preservice teachers with positive attitudes who worried about their teaching effectiveness); (b) positive doers (more experienced teachers who understood the challenge of inclusion, but their attitudes remained positive); (c) resisters (experienced teachers who resisted inclusion based on fairness). Berry (2010) explained



that these three profiles might be typical of teacher candidates, so teacher education programs need to provide course content and experiences to prepare candidates to teach all students, including those with disabilities.

The second study, completed by Burke and Sutherland (2004), surveyed 15 preservice teachers from Saint Joseph's College in Brooklyn, New York who were student teaching in the dual (special/general elementary education) certification program and 15 inservice teachers from Queens Village, New York. Participants' completed a 12-item survey, generated from the researchers. The researchers found significant differences between inclusion beliefs between inservice and preservice teachers. Compared to inservice teachers, preservice teachers reported: stronger knowledge background of disabilities, a stronger belief that inclusion had a positive effect on students, that their preparation program prepared them to work with students with special needs, and were more agreeable to work in inclusion environments. Burke and Sutherland (2004) argue that both preservice and inservice teachers need exposure to students with disabilities and inclusionary practices as well as sufficient training to support the teaching of students with disabilities.

The two previous studies examined preservice with inservice teachers. In both cases, researchers found differences between preservice and inservice teachers, based on their years of experience. Berry (2010) identified three profiles: keen, but anxious, beginners; positive doers; and, resisters. Typically, preservice teachers were beginners and generated positive attitudes, whereas inservice teachers with more experience resisted inclusionary practices. Burke and Sutherland (2004) found that preservice teachers reported more positive attitudes about inclusion and willingness to work in

inclusionary environments, compared to inservice teachers. Both studies suggested that their research should inform more inclusionary practices within teacher preparation and inservice training.

Table 2.7

*Preservice and Novice Teachers' Attitudes*

Author, Year	Study	Purpose/Question	Findings
Berry (2010)	Preservice and Early Career Teachers' Attitudes Toward Inclusion, Instructional Accommodations, and Fairness: Three Profiles	What are the general education teachers' ( $N=60$ ) attitudes about inclusion after an introductory special education course?	Three types of profiles: (a) keen, but anxious, beginners; (b) positive doers; (c) resisters; all three groups rejected the notion that teachers should not make accommodations for students with disabilities.
Burke & Sutherland (2004)	Attitudes Toward Inclusion: Knowledge vs. Experience	Do preservice teachers ( $n=15$ ) in a dual certification (special/general education) program have positive attitudes toward inclusion because of their knowledge of the most current issues in special education? Do inservice teachers ( $n=15$ ) have positive attitudes toward inclusion because of their experience in education?	Preservice teachers reported a stronger knowledge background of disabilities than inservice teachers believed about themselves; preservice teachers had a stronger belief that inclusion had a positive effect on students; preservice teachers reported that their preparation program prepared them to work with students with special needs and inservice teachers did not; preservice teachers were more agreeable to work in inclusion environments

*Inservice Teachers' Attitudes*

While previous subsections reviewed preservice teachers' attitudes or studies that combined preservice and inservice teachers, this subsection examines seven studies that isolated inservice teachers' attitudes (see Table 2.8). Hull (2005) surveyed 100 inservice elementary teachers from four Florida schools and then completed follow-up confirmatory interviews ( $N=15$ ) to examine the attitudes and perceptions of general and special educators of students with disabilities. Results from the 59-question survey

showed that while 97 percent of participants agreed that inclusion is a desirable educational practice, 66 percent of participants disagreed when asked if all students, regardless of the type or degree of their disability, should be included in a general education classroom. In general, teachers reported that students with disabilities were best served with a combination approach, including instruction in an inclusive general education classroom and within a special education resource room. Further, only half of the teachers surveyed indicated that they would be more willing to teach students with moderate or severe disabilities in the general education classroom if they were provided training and curriculum. Hull (2005) reflected, “There is an apparent reluctance for teachers to commit to teaching students with moderate or severe disabilities in the general education classroom regardless of the support provisions offered” (p. 84).

Table 2.8

*Inservice Teachers' Attitudes*

Author, Year	Study	Purpose/Question	Findings
Cook, Tankersley, Cook, & Landrum (2000)	Teachers' Attitudes Toward Their Included Students With Disabilities	Using predictions based on the Theory of Instructional Tolerance (Gerber, 1988), what are teachers' attitudes toward their students with disabilities?	Included students with disabilities were overrepresented among concern, indifference, and rejection nominations and underrepresented among attachment nominations; Teachers with high levels of inclusive teaching experience nominated significantly more students with disabilities in the concern category
Cook (2004)	Inclusive Teachers' Attitudes Toward Their Students with Disabilities: A Replication and Extension	To replicate the findings of Cook et al. (2000); To analyze the presence of paraprofessionals, examine the effect of district SES on teachers' attitudes; To examine effect of years experience on attitudes	Inclusive teachers with paraprofessionals nominated their students with disabilities less frequently than teachers without a paraprofessional; teachers with 11 or more years of experience were less likely to nominate a student to the “rejection” category
Cook, Cameron &	Inclusive Teachers' Attitudinal Ratings of	To explore the use of a new rating scale that	The rating procedure had modest test–retest reliability and

Tankersley (2007)	Their Students with Disabilities	measures teachers' attitudes toward their students and investigate the attitudes of inclusive teachers toward their students with disabilities using the rating scale	moderate concurrent validity with a previously validated nomination procedure; students with disabilities received significantly higher ratings of teacher concern, indifference, and rejection, and significantly lower attachment ratings
Hull (2005)	General Classroom and Special Education Teachers' Attitudes Toward and Perceptions of Inclusion in Relation to Student Outcomes	To examine the attitudes and perceptions of general and special educators ( $N=100$ ) regarding the outcomes of students with disabilities who participated in inclusive programs	97% agreed that inclusion is a desirable educational practice; 66% of participants disagreed when asked if all students, regardless of the type or degree of their disability, should be included in a general education classroom; general reluctance for teachers to serve students with disabilities
McLeskey, Waldron, So, Swanson, & Loveland (2001)	Perspectives of Teachers Toward Inclusive School Programs	Are their differences in the perspectives of teachers ( $N=162$ ) who teach in inclusive school programs and those who teach in traditional, pull-out special education programs?	Inclusion was supported by the majority of teachers; Teachers involved in implementing school inclusion programs had significantly more positive perspectives on inclusion; Five times as many teachers in the non-inclusion group felt that their school was not ready for inclusion, as compared to the inclusion group
Pierre (2009)	Not in My Classroom: Regular Education Teacher Attitudes on the Inclusion of Special Education Students in Rural and Urban School Communities	What is the attitude of regular-education teachers ( $N=100$ ) toward inclusion and individuals with disabilities at large among rural and urban school communities?	Teacher attitudes toward students with disabilities and inclusion were similar in rural and urban setting; Location does not play a part in teachers' attitudes about inclusion
Ross-Hill (2009)	Teacher Attitude Towards Inclusion Practices and Special Needs Students	What are teachers' ( $N=73$ ) attitudes towards the implementation of inclusion in the elementary and secondary school classrooms?	No differences between elementary and secondary teachers; general education teachers reported being confident in teaching students with special needs

The second study, conducted by McLeskey, Waldron, So, Swanson, and Loveland (2001), examined the differences in attitudes of teachers in varying school contexts. Researchers used the Inclusive School Program (ISP) Survey with 162 inservice teachers in six, K-6 schools in small rural and suburban midwestern towns and cities. Seventy-

eight participants taught in inclusive schools and 84 taught in non-inclusive schools (e.g. “pull-out,” resource room settings for students who require special education). The majority of teachers in the study supported the concept of inclusion, but teachers involved in implementing school inclusion programs had significantly more positive perspectives on inclusion. Additionally, five times as many teachers in the non-inclusion group felt that their school was not ready for inclusion, compared to the inclusion group. Further, inclusion teachers reported that teachers were more willing to collaborate, that special educators provided support for all students in general education classroom, and were generally more positive about the benefits for students in inclusion programs. In sum, significant differences were found between the attitudes of teachers based in different levels of inclusionary school contexts.

Instead of examining the inclusionary context of schools, Pierre (2009) sought to understand 100 teachers’ attitudes toward inclusion in both rural and urban settings. Half of the participants were rural teachers and the other half taught in urban schools. Using the Scale of Teachers’ Attitudes Toward Inclusion (STATIC), Pierre surveyed K-12 general education teachers from Florida with an average of eight years experience. Results from the study indicated that rural and urban teachers’ attitudes toward students with disabilities and inclusion were similar; Pierre found that location did not play a part in teachers’ attitudes about inclusion. However, large class sizes, irrespective of disability, combined with the inclusion of students who receive special education negatively influenced teachers’ attitudes toward inclusion.

Like Pierre (2009), Ross-Hill (2009) documented 73 general education teachers’ attitudes toward the implementation of inclusion in elementary and secondary classrooms

using the STATIC. Participants in this study were from the rural southeastern U.S. and 40 percent were considered local to the area in which they taught. Results indicated no attitudinal differences found between elementary and secondary teachers and, in general, teachers reported being confident in teaching students with special education needs. The researcher also indicated that the general education teachers in the district reported having one or more years of inservice training to serve students who receive special education and hypothesized that this training may have influenced their attitudes.

The following three studies (Cook, Tankersley, Cook, & Landrum, 2000; Cook, 2004; Cook, Cameron, & Tankersley, 2007) are situated within Gerber's (1988) Theory of Instructional Tolerance. Four attitudinal categories were used to describe teachers' attitudes toward their students. The first, "attachment," refers to students who are high achieving. The second, "concern" refers to students who struggle academically, but who do not misbehave. Third, "indifference," refers to students who are quiet and unnoticeable and often avoid teachers. The final category, "rejection," refers to students who have social, attitudinal, and academic problems, for which the teacher has "no hope." For each category, teachers nominated an actual student from their class. Typically, according to Cook et al. (2000), students with disabilities were overrepresented in the "concern" and "rejection" categories and underrepresented in the "attachment" category. These categories are used in the studies that follow.

Cook et al. (2000) asked 70 general education teachers to nominate three of their students to each of the four, attitudinal category prompts. Participants taught in one of six suburban Ohio elementary schools and averaged 15 years experience. Within the six schools, 221 students were identified as receiving special education. Results from this

study aligned with the researchers' hypotheses. For example, while 13.6 percent of the student population had disabilities, 5.8 percent of the students with disabilities were identified in the "attachment" category. Conversely, 30.8 percent were in the "concern" category and 30.9 percent were in the "rejection" category. Students with disabilities were overrepresented among concern and rejection categories and underrepresented among attachment categories. Researchers also identified teachers with high levels of inclusive teaching experience as placing more students with disabilities in the "concern" category.

In 2004, Cook sought to replicate the Cook et al. (2000) study. With 46 teachers from 16 different elementary schools in Ohio, Cook re-administered the attitudinal instrument. This time 140 students, or 14.3 percent of the school population received special education. Like the previous study, students with disabilities were significantly overrepresented among teachers' "concern," "indifference," and "rejection" categories. Further, included students were significantly more likely to receive concern nominations in SES school districts and from experienced teachers, and to be nominated in the "rejection" category in classes without a paraprofessional and in high SES districts. With regard to experience, teachers with 11 years or more were less likely (12.2%) to "reject" students with disabilities, compared to 31.4% of less experienced teachers.

Most recently, Cook, Cameron & Tankersley (2007) restated the original four prompts (see Cook, et al., 2000; Cook, 2004) to reflect a new rating format. The new format used a 4-point Likert scale and 50 teachers rated three of their students. The researchers found the new rating format to have concurrent validity with the previous procedure and modest test-retest reliability. Similar to previous studies, students with

disabilities received significantly higher ratings in the “concern,” “indifference,” and “rejection” categories and significantly lower in the “rejection” category. Two new results were reported: average teacher “indifference” ratings related significantly and positively to having a paraprofessional in the classroom, and the district’s SES predicted teachers’ average “rejection” ratings. The researchers stated that these results were difficult to interpret and recommended research to closely examine the role of paraprofessionals and their responsibilities to educate students with disabilities, in particular teachers’ indifference in this context.

Collectively, the studies of inservice teachers’ attitudes included four studies which looked at particular variables and their connection with attitudes and three studies examined Cook and his colleagues’ work with attitudinal rating scales. All the studies were survey-based and relied on teacher-reported data. In general, teachers reported that concept of inclusion was desirable (Hull, 2005; McLeskey et. al, 2001; Pierre, 2009; Ross-Hill, 2009), but there were variable results based on schools’ inclusionary practices (McLeskey et. al, 2001) and teachers’ willingness (Hull, 2005) and instructional confidence levels to teach students with disabilities (Ross-Hill, 2009). McLeskey et al. (2001) found that teachers who taught in inclusive environments had more positive attitudes towards students who receive special education. Using the STATIC with K-12 teachers, Pierre (2009) did not find any differences between rural and urban teachers’ attitudes towards students who receive special education, while Ross-Hill (2009) did not find differences between elementary and secondary teachers. Cook and his colleagues found similar results across all three studies: students with disabilities were overrepresented in “concern,” “indifference,” and “reject,” categories and



underrepresented in the “attachment” category. This means that teachers had more negative attitudes toward students with disabilities than their typical peers. Like Ross-Hill (2009), Cook (2004) also identified that years of experience predicted more positive attitudes towards students with disabilities. The presence of a paraprofessional in general education classrooms decreased teachers’ identification of students in the “reject” category (Cook, et. al, 2007). In sum, inservice teachers’ generally positive attitudes can be connected to their years of experience and the degree of inclusiveness in their schools.

This section of the review examined research about teachers’ attitudes of inclusion and students who receive special education. Preservice and inservice teachers’ attitudes about students who receive special education vary, but researchers overwhelmingly agree that inclusionary attitudes increase educational opportunities for all students (Bender, Vail, & Scott, 1995). These positive attitudes in conjunction with inclusionary instructional practices will allow teachers to best serve students who receive special education. The final section of the review examines how classroom teachers refer LDS to special education.

### What are Teachers’ Referral Practices of Linguistically Diverse Students to Special Education?

Based on U.S. Census data, the risk ratio<sup>3</sup> for Hispanic students identified with specific learning disabilities (LD) in Massachusetts increased from 0.88 in 1999-2000 to 1.56 in 2006-2007 when compared to all other students. In short, this means Hispanics are 1.56 times more likely than their peers to be represented in the LD category (U.S. DOE, Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP), 2007). Similarly, African

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<sup>3</sup> A risk ratio is determined by dividing the risk index of one racial or ethnic group by the risk index of another group, or in this case, all racial and ethnic groups. Until recently, risk ratios were determined by using Anglo students’ risk ratios as the denominator in calculating risk. Now, all groups are recommended to be included (OSEP, 2009).

American and American Indian/Alaskan students, respectively, are 1.54 and 1.63 times more likely to be categorized as learning disabled. By contrast, Asian/Pacific Islanders (0.35) and Whites (0.75) are far less likely to receive LD services.

Schools and policymakers are concerned about inappropriately classifying LDS as receiving special education services. Of greater concern, is that between 73 and 86 percent of all students (regardless of linguistic preference) referred by classroom teachers were eventually found to be eligible for special education services (Algozzine, Christenson, Ysseldyke, 1983; Ysseldyke, Vanderwood, & Shriner, 1997). These statistics suggest teachers are tremendously accurate in their abilities to diagnose disabilities, or the special education referral process needs to be (re)examined and addressed directly with general education and special educators. In light of this, it may not be surprising that documentation of the overrepresentation and underrepresentation of LDS in special education is evident, in both practice and policy documents (Artiles, Rueda, Salazar, & Higareda, 2005; Donovan & Cross, 2002).

This section examines studies in the following areas: pre-referral and referral practices, assessor practice, teachers' assessment practices, and eligibility decisions. Two recurrent themes throughout each discussion of referral practices and placement in special education include testing bias and the overrepresentation of LDS. These are further contextualized by students' social context and language background. I will be discussing these factors throughout the four areas in this section.

#### *Pre/referral Practices*

Studies in this subsection include examination of the identification process of LDS with LD, including referral issues (see Table 2.9). The pre/referral process is often

described as biased (Donovan, et al., 2002; Langdon, 1989) and inaccurate (McCardle, Mele-McCarthy, & Leos, 2005). Two studies, examining this process, are included to understand reasons why LDS are referred to special education. Klingner and Harry (2006) completed an ethnographic study to review the referral process of LDS in nine urban schools, specifically Child Study Team (CST)<sup>4</sup> meetings. After observing meetings and placement conferences, Klingner and Harry used a grounded theory orientation to conduct their research. Findings revealed that the “alternative strategies” created for 19 specific students, were given little attention. The quality and process in CST meetings varied greatly, child to child. Klingner and Harry (2006) recommend “professionals take this aspect of the process more seriously, with a focus on collaborative problem solving and developing specific instructional objectives and a plan for each child” (p. 2275). They also recommend removing special educators, psychologist, and speech-language pathologists from the pre-referral process, as they tend to impact the decisions of the team. Focusing on the strategy work of general educators, Klingner and Harry (2006) recommend the use of RTI to support the referral process (p. 2276).

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<sup>4</sup> Child Study Teams (CSTs) are typically school-based problem solving teams of educators who work to create and monitor classroom interventions within general education classrooms. The focus is to create successfully environments for diverse learners to be successful.

Table 2.9

*Studies of Pre/referral Practices*

Author, Year	Study	Purpose/Question	Findings
Klingner & Harry (2006)	The Special Education Referral and Decision-Making Process for English Language Learners: Child Study Team Meetings and Placement Conferences	To examine the Special Education Referral and Decision-Making Process for English Language Learners, with a focus on Child Study Team Meetings and Placement Conferences	Only cursory attention was given to pre-referral strategies; great variation meeting to meeting; the process needs improvement
Carrasquillo and Rodriguez (1997)	Hispanic Limited English-proficient Students with Disabilities: A Case Study Example	What are the schooling characteristics of Hispanic Limited English-proficient Students (N=46) who were referred to or participated in bilingual special education in NYC schools?	Limited pre-referral interventions used with LDS before placement into special education.

Like Klingner and Harry (2006), Carrasquillo and Rodriguez's (1997) case study research, found limited pre-referral interventions utilized for LDS before placement into special education. Forty-eight percent of special education Hispanic students' referrals in this study were related to academic reasons. In contrast to Klingner and Harry (2006), a bilingual staff member (e.g. psychologist) is recommended to participate in pre-referral meetings to help reduce overrepresentation of Hispanic students in special education classrooms. Both studies acknowledge that characteristics of LDS and students with LD overlap, complicating the assessment process.

*Assessor Practice*

Another important type of research in this area involves assessors' practices. The following four studies involve the assessment practices of school psychologists (McCloskey & Athanasiou, 2000; Ochoa, Galarza & Gonzalez, 1996), speech-language

pathologists (Figueroa & Newsome, 2006), and special education directors (Madaus, Rinaldi, Chafouleas, & Bigaj, 2009) and report similar findings (see Table 2.10). Most recently, Figueroa and Newsome (2006) examined 19 psychological reports of LDS within an urban elementary setting. Although it was a small sample size, they reported that the linguistic profile (predominantly Spanish-speaking) was typical of California school districts. They found that assessments were biased and discriminatory; assessors relied on metrics normed on monolingual students and frequently used just one assessment tool to make eligibility decisions. The quantitative results of their survey give a clear picture of how school psychologists are not “assess[ing] or investigat[ing] the possible confounding effects of bilingualism on tests, testing, and diagnoses,” (Figueroa & Newsome, 2006, p. 209).

Table 2.10

*Studies of Assessor Practice*

Author, Year	Study	Purpose/Question	Findings
Figueroa & Newsome (2006)	The Diagnosis of LD in English Learners: Is it Nondiscriminatory?	Is the process of identifying LDS with learning disabilities (N=19) biased?	Nonbiased, nondiscriminatory assessment is not being done with bilingual students; call for more research
McCloskey & Athanasiou (2000)	Assessment and Intervention Practices with Second-Language Learners Among School Psychologists	What were the assessment and intervention practices for LDS among practicing school psychologists (N=96) during the 1997-98 school year?	The majority of school psychologists continue to use traditional cognitive tests/interventions, but a number are using alternative assessment techniques; comfort level around giving nontraditional assessments as 2.6/5 on Likert scale
Ochoa, Galarza, & Gonzalez (1996)	An Investigation of School Psychologists' Assessment Practices of Language Proficiency with Bilingual and Limited-English-Proficient Students	What are school psychologists' (N=859) assessment practices with bilingual and/or LDS?	62% of school psychologists conducted their own assessments and most often used the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-Revised or the Test de Vocabulario en Imagenes Peabody; Need to expand assessment focus and receive appropriate training (only >25% who conduct bilingual assessments have had adequate

			training in understanding LDS)
Madaus, Rinaldi, Chafouleas, & Bigaj (2009)	An examination of current assessment practices in Northeastern school districts	What are the test selection practices and specific assessment methods used in school districts across five northeastern states?	Insufficient professional development offered to support assessment practices and decisions; recommendation to teacher educators to examine their existing programming to support the assessment needs of all teachers

Similarly, McCloskey and Athanasiou (2000) examined the assessment practices of LDS by school psychologists in a southwestern state through survey data (Likert scale) during the 1997-1998 academic year. Thirty-three percent of the members of the state professional organization ( $N=96$ ) participated. It is important to note that 30 of the 96 psychologists did not assess a linguistically diverse student between 1997-1998. They found that the majority of psychologists continued to use traditional cognitive assessments, though some were beginning to use nontraditional forms. Psychologists' comfort level is an area of concern; the average score on a 5-point Likert scaled was 2.6, deemed "low" by the researchers. Adding to Klingner and Harry's (2006) assertions that psychologists are completing biased assessments, McCloskey and Athanasiou (2000) move further, recommending a shift from traditional to authentic, nontraditional assessments.

The third study, completed by Ochoa, Galarza, and Gonzalez (1996), surveyed 859 National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) from eight different states. They report that 62 percent of school psychologists conducted their own assessments, but less than 25 percent of psychologists who conducted bilingual assessments had sufficient training in understanding LDS. The authors, similar to the two previous studies, call for an expansion of assessment, specifically for school psychology programs to provide specific training with pre-service psychologists.

More recently, Madaus, Rinaldi, Chafouleas, and Bigaj (2009) surveyed 164 special education directors in five northeastern states about formal and informal assessment practices for students referred for special education. When asked about their methods of informal assessment for LDS, they reported commonly using behavior observations, norm-referenced-testing, and curriculum-based assessment. Further, directors reported that professional training related to assessment tools and techniques were inconsistent and there was an overreliance on past practices, which tended to set LDS at a disadvantage, due to inherent bias within the assessments.

All four studies of assessors' practices reflect the need for further research, as well as more and appropriate attention given to LDS' social context, background, prior educational experience, and language. Furthermore, there is an apparent need for assessors to use both formal and informal assessment tools to gain a more comprehensive and holistic view of LDS. Succinctly put in a previous synthesis, Klingner and Artiles (2003) observe, "this phenomenon of paying insufficient attention to students' native languages appears to be a theme that runs across studies conducted over the past 20 years," (p. 67).

#### *Teachers' Assessment Practices*

While school psychologists, speech-language pathologists, and special education directors are part of implementing or overseeing the assessment process, it is often general and special educators who implement authentic assessment. Three of the four aforementioned studies about assessor practice discuss the misuse or limited use of formal assessments. Examining the practices of teachers, who are more apt to use authentic, or informal assessments, is essential. The two studies below analyze the

accuracy of teachers' ability to rate their students' academic achievement and subsequent risk factors for LDS with LD (see Table 2.11).

Table 2.11

*Studies of Teachers' Assessment Practices*

Author, Year	Study	Purpose/Question	Findings
Limbos & Geva (2001)	Accuracy of Teacher Assessments of Second-Language Students at Risk for Reading Disability	What is the degree of correspondence between teacher rating scales and objective testing results to identify LD? How accurate are teachers at assessing the reading achievement between LDS and first language? Which factors lead to misclassification?	Teacher rating scales and assessments had low sensitivity in identifying LDS with reading disabilities; teacher assessments had a moderate to high positive likelihood ratios for all groups across assessment methods; lower accuracy of teachers' screening of LDS (bias); recommends use of a combination of screening tools to avoid assessment bias
Barrera (2006)	Roles of Definitional and Assessment Models in the Identification of New or Second Language Learners of English for Special Education	Can curriculum-based dynamic assessment (CDA) effectively differentiate between LEP students and those having LD?	144 work samples rated according to the following pattern: LDS (high-achieving) rated higher, LDS only was rated next highest, and LDS with LD rated lowest; predictive relationship in 13 of the 17 measures

Limbos and Geva (2001) examined the accuracy of identifying LDS with LD. They conducted an in-depth analysis of teacher rating scales and their correspondence with objective testing results. They tested 204 LDS at two annual intervals and evaluated the decisions of 51 teachers. Through semi-structured interviews and rating scales, teachers identified students as average, developing, or at risk. Results indicate teacher rating scales and assessments had low sensitivity in identifying LDS with LD. In essence, the assessment process by itself would result in failure to identify many potentially at risk students. However, if a teacher identified a child at risk, there was a higher likelihood that he or she indeed had a disability. The authors recommend using a combination of



assessment/screening tools to avoid bias, such as those recommended in the reauthorization of IDEA (e.g. Response To Intervention model).

Barrera (2006) reviews the effectiveness of curriculum-based assessment (CBA) to differentiate between LDS with and without LD within phase two of a larger correlation study. Thirty-eight regular and special educators conducted “blind” assessments on 144 work samples (on note-taking) from 83 Mexican American secondary students from southwestern Minnesota and southern Texas. Students were placed into one of three learner groups: linguistically diverse with LD; linguistically diverse only; and linguistically diverse (high-achieving). Researchers found that teachers in this study rated work samples according to the following pattern: linguistically diverse (high-achieving) rated highest, linguistically diverse only was rated next highest, and linguistically diverse with LD rated lowest. A predictive relationship, according to Barrera (2006), is apparent in 13 of the 17 measures.

Special educators have difficulty accurately assessing LDS (Klingner, de Schonewise, de Onis, & Barletta, 2008). Authentic assessment, such as CBA, can assist teachers by combining information generated by psychologists (provided the psychologists are trained appropriately to use assessments that are sensitive to linguistic diversity) and SLPs with their own teacher-generated assessments to make more informed decisions. A combination of formal and informal methods of assessing achievement, cognitive ability, and language proficiency are recommended. The following section provides two examples of the importance of appropriate assessment measures used to make accurate eligibility decisions.

### *Eligibility Determinations*

Artiles, Rueda, Salazar and Higareda (2005) examined minority representation in 11 urban, southern California school districts (with identified high densities of LDS) between 1989 and 1999 (see Table 2.12). Each of the 11 districts had an average of 64,000 students, 69 percent of those classified as Latina/o. The purpose of their study was to analyze a secondary data source according to disability categories typically affected by overrepresentation including LD. They found disproportionate representation patterns related to grade level, language proficiency status, disability category, type of special education program, and type of language support program needed. For example, LDS with limited native and English language showed the highest rates of identification within special education categories (including LD). They found LDS had a significant proportion of placement in LD secondary programs in comparison to Anglo peers. The authors also report LDS with high-incidence disabilities, like LD, came more commonly from low-socioeconomic backgrounds. The authors urge educators to be aware of this disproportionality among ethnic groups. Recommendations include the use of multiple indicators to track placements, rather than focusing only on assessment and co-occurrence of difficulties in both languages.

Table 2.12

#### *Studies of Eligibility Determinations*

Author, Year	Study	Purpose/Question	Findings
Artiles, Rueda, Salazar, & Higareda (2005)	Within-Group Diversity in Minority Disproportionate Representation: English Language Learners in Urban School Districts	What is the magnitude of disproportionate representation for English Language Learners (ELLs) in several California urban districts?	Disproportionate representation patterns were related to grade level, language proficiency status, disability category, type of special education program, and type of language support program
Wilkinson, Ortiz,	English Language Learners with Reading-	To develop profiles of ELLs who had received	Data missing, incomplete, and overlooked in the procedures

Robertson, & Kushner (2006)	Related LD: Linking Data from Multiple Sources to Make Eligibility Determinations	native language instruction and who were identified as having LD in their native language	leading to eligibility for ELLs
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Further, a longitudinal study conducted by Wilkinson, Ortiz, Robertson and Kushner (2006) examined Spanish-speaking students with a documented LD in both languages and their eligibility determinations. The study looked at a subsample of 21 students with LD from a large urban Texas district. The district and an expert panel evaluated the educational records and IEPs and found significant deficiencies in the procedures leading to eligibility decisions for LDS. For example, they found five out of the 21 students appear to meet the criteria for reading related LD, six for non-reading related LD, and ten appear to have learning problems that needed further data to validate eligibility. This supports findings by Carrasquillo and Rodriguez (1997) and Klingner and Harry (2006) stating research-based and intensive interventions must be implemented within the context of the regular education classroom before any kind of referral is made. Wilkinson et al. (2006) reported that although the students were eligible in most cases, when one considered additional sources of information such as family input, multiple informal data sources, prior experiences, and immigration, eligibility decisions would change. The authors called for more research and training to assure best practices and accurate eligibility decisions are guaranteed for LDS.

How and when do teachers distinguish between LDS who struggle to acquire language versus those who have LDs? Recently, a number of researchers have called for future work to examine pre/referral and assessment practices, driving this particular question about the identification of LDS with or without LD (Harry & Klingner, 2007;

Klingner, Artiles & Barletta, 2006; Lesaux, 2006; McCardle, et al., 2005; Wagner, et al., 2005).

Pre/referrals and assessment practices inform eligibility decisions. Previous research shows the process of referring, assessing and making eligibility decisions about LDS is inherently biased (Donovan, et al., 2002; Langdon, 1989). Prereferral strategies are not consistently used (Klingner, Artiles & Barletta, 2006), assessors tend to use formal, biased measures (Abedi, 2006; Macswan & Rolstad, 2006), authentic assessments are used minimally (Klingner, et al., 2008) and eligibility is based on limited information (Wilkinson, et al., 2006). The research is replete with examples of records' analysis and case studies that show the ineffectiveness of the referral process (Langdon, 2002; Liu, Ortiz, Wilkinson, Robertson, & Kushner, 2008; Schiff-Myers, et al., 1993), which, therefore, disproportionately and inappropriately place LDS in special education. Results of such practices continue to leave LDS at a disadvantage.

This review of the literature focused on the three domains central to this dissertation, viewed through a sociocultural lens. The domains included coursework, attitudes, and teacher practices, with particular focus on decisions to refer LDS to special education. As stated in the beginning of this review, these three domains are in service of student outcomes. In order to investigate what and how teacher graduates think about the LDS and students with disabilities they teach, as well as teacher preparation to educate these two student subgroups, this extant review was necessary as a foundation for this dissertation.

### CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This chapter reiterates the purpose and research questions guiding this study as well as the methods used for data collection, analysis, and integration. The following sections are included: rationale for mixed methods, research design, participants, context, measures, data collection procedures, data analysis and integration procedures, and limitations of methods.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between teacher education graduates' coursework, attitudes, and practice. Four research questions informed this study:

*Research Question 1: What are the principal components of the three surveys administered to elementary teachers?*

*Research Question 2: What are the relationships between teachers' practices, language attitudes, and teacher education coursework?*

*Research Question 3: How do the results from Research Question 2 inform sample selection for Research Question 4?*

*Research Question 4: What are the decision-making practices of a representative sample of practicing elementary teachers who educate linguistically diverse students?*

#### Rationale for Mixed Methods

In order to reasonably address these questions, a mixed methods approach was most appropriate for this study. Mixed methods research offers the ability to integrate quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2003, 2005, 2009; Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003; Greene & Caracelli, 1997; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). This study used Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, and Hanson's (2003) definition of mixed methods research:

A mixed study involves the collection of analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given a priority, and involve the integration of the data at one of more stages in the process of research. (p. 245)

The rationale for the use of a mixed methods approach, as defined above, is based on the following four arguments:

**(1) Generating better understanding of social phenomena:** Since the education of linguistically diverse learners and the preparedness of the teachers who serve them is a complex and multifaceted social phenomena, the use of mixed methods allows for better understanding of the nuance and subtleties which underlie this work (Maxwell & Loomis, 2003).

**(2) Valuing pluralism and different views:** Multiple ways of knowing, understanding and thinking are valued within this approach. Greene, Benjamin and Goodyear (2001) urge moving away from experimental methods in order to address the “complex, multiply-determined, dynamic social phenomena” which, in turn, “can be better addressed through the multiple perspectives of diverse methods than through the limited lens of one” (p. 27). In short, multiple views offer more lenses through which researchers can interpret and analyze data.

**(3) Increasing validity and triangulation:** Using both quantitative and qualitative methods allow for enhanced internal validity; both methods attempt to capture the same phenomenon and results can be combined and validated (Greene, Benjamin, & Goodyear, 2001). The use of multiple data sources increases triangulation, and therefore, validity.

**(4) Creating a more insightful view than if quantitative or qualitative were used exclusively:** Regardless of whether or not research findings complement or conflict with each other, the results provide richer, deeper understanding than if quantitative or qualitative methods were used in isolation (Greene, Benjamin, & Goodyear, 2001; Greene & Caracelli, 1997).

Using quantitative or qualitative data in isolation presents only part of the study's landscape. Combined data gathered in systematic ways generates a more complete picture of the study, its participants, and more importantly, the phenomenon under investigation.

Underpinning both mixed methods research and this study is a *paradigm*<sup>5</sup> issue (Greene et al., 2001), or *paradigm debate* (Reichardt & Rallis, 1994). While methods do not necessary need to be linked to paradigms, they often are and are therefore associated with particular philosophies. In essence, quantitative research follows what has been somewhat narrowly defined as a positivist stance<sup>6</sup> (National Research Council, 2002) while qualitative research is simply considered interpretive<sup>7</sup>. Both methods have limitations, and their definitions are surely questionable. Quantitative research is challenged to capture the interplay and nuance that exists within complex, educational systems and phenomena. These difficulties capturing nuance may suggest that qualitative approaches would be more effective. But, qualitative methods are also challenged. While interpretive measures can explore a phenomenon they are often time intensive and costly.

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<sup>5</sup> A paradigm is a set of shared values, beliefs and practices that create a way to view the world.

<sup>6</sup> A positivist stance is based on prediction and control, typically using quantitative methods.

<sup>7</sup> An interpretive stance is often associated with qualitative research approaches, because "it is guided by the researcher's set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 31).

Together, however, the advantages of both methods can collectively produce an optimal research situation.

The two most well known perspectives about mixing methods are the dialectical (Greene et al., 2001) and pragmatic (Patton, 1988) views. The dialectical perspective honors the contradictions both types of research bring to a study, “giving each one relatively equal footing and merit” (Hanson et al., 2005, p. 226). It is based on dialectical thinking, or understanding social interactions through their tensions, oppositions and contradictions (Forster, 1993).

The pragmatic view, in contrast, adheres to the belief that the context of a study determines methodological decisions. This view values the research question above all else. Greene (2001) argues, “it is the natural limitations and opportunities of a given context that matter when making mixed-methods decisions, rather than a consideration for the philosophical compatibility of different inquiry traditions” (p. 28). Thus, there is no need to resolve paradigm issues if a variety of methods is used.

As stated, Greene and Caracelli’s (1997) approach encourages the use of different paradigms. While Greene and Caracelli’s theory is most prominent, it still broaches two critical challenges. First, the dialectic approach is either totally misunderstood or poorly understood (Betzner, 2008). Second, there is a growing body of research, which adopts the pragmatic approach to mixed methods. Even though the pragmatic theory is still evolving and needs further development (Teddlie & Tashakorri, 2003), many researchers employ a pragmatic approach to their mixed methods research, challenging Greene and Caracelli’s dialectic theory.



In a rare and recent study, Betzner (2008) empirically compared dialectic and pragmatic approaches to mixed methods and found:

[B]oth mixed method approaches produced unique conclusions that would have not been available by presenting single methods side-by-side. However, the dialectic method produced more complex convergence and more divergence, leading it to be more generative than the pragmatic method. The use of stronger as compared to weaker interpretive methods contributed to the generative quality of the dialectic approach. Overall, the dialectic method appears more suitable to exploring more complex phenomenon as compared to the pragmatic approach. (p. iv)

These overall findings as well as the need for further mixed methods research give credence to utilizing a dialectic approach for this study.

Like Greene and Caracelli (1997), this study tried to move beyond paradigmatic differences and instead focused on “joining the critical features of [the] evaluative claims that represent distinct traditions” in order to “generate more relevant, useful and discerning inferences” (p. 19). Employing a dialectical approach to this research was most appropriate for this study, as it values both positivist and interpretive stances. The combination of survey and interview data contributed to the interactive, mixed methods research design, discussed in the next section.

#### Research Design: Sequential Explanatory Design

This study employed a sequential explanatory research design (Creswell et al., 2003; Creswell, 2009; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) (see Figure 1) and was comprised of a five-step process. First, quantitative data were collected. Second, quantitative data were

analyzed and used for qualitative sample selection. Third, qualitative data were collected. Next, qualitative data were analyzed. Finally, the entire corpus of data was interpreted. The quantitative component of this study was comprised by the collection and analysis of survey data. Then, the interpretation of the survey data results guided the selection of participants for the qualitative portion of the study. Here, a heterogeneous representative sample of participants ( $N=9$ ) was identified from the larger surveyed group. A regression-based residual analysis<sup>8</sup> allowed for the identification of participants to be interviewed. Because of its sequential explanatory design, the study began with a larger sample ( $N=69$ ) to test variables and “then to explore in more depth with a few cases during the qualitative phase,” (Creswell, et al., 2003, p. 217). The design allowed for the interpretation of the entire analyses to explain the results of the study. The remainder of this chapter discusses participants, recruitment, context, measures, and particular quantitative and qualitative methods.

Figure 3.1

*Sequential Explanatory Design* (Creswell, et al., 2003)

Quantitative Data collection	Quantitative Data Analysis	Qualitative Data collection	Qualitative Data Analysis	Interpretation of entire analysis
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### Participants and Recruitment

Three-hundred former undergraduate and graduate students, who graduated from Chapman College (a pseudonym) in 2004, 2005, and 2006 ( $N = 100$ /per year), received an email (see Appendix A) in the spring of the 2009-2010 academic year from a faculty

<sup>8</sup> Residual analysis is a technique used to understand how independent variables are related to a dependent variable. This analysis is commonly used to make predictions; it estimates the average value of the dependent variable when the independent variables remain fixed.

researcher, inviting them to participate in the study. Seventy-five graduates (or 25% of those invited) agreed to participate. The faculty member provided the researcher with a contact list of those participants who wanted to participate, this way the confidentiality of respondents was protected following protocols set by the Institutional Review Board. Next, the researcher sent a letter and participant informed consent form (see Appendix B) to the prospective participant. Participants who agreed to participate signed the consent form and returned it to me. Then, the researcher began collecting data.

Seventy-five Language Attitude Teacher Surveys (LATS) (detailed descriptions of measures are forthcoming in this chapter) were distributed and 75 were returned resulting in a 100 percent response rate to this survey. Six of these responses were unusable, due to the fact that three of the respondents were secondary teachers, two respondents were not currently teaching, and one responder did not work with LDS. This left the study with 69 respondents. Then, the course histories and Three-Year-Out (3YO) survey data from the 69 respondents were retrieved (detailed descriptions of measures are forthcoming in this chapter). The same participants were solicited to extend this survey work; participants were asked if they wanted to participate in the second part of the study.

### *Demographics*

The participants in this study were all elementary teachers who graduated from Chapman College in 2004, 2005, or 2006, and at the time of contact, taught LDS. Ninety-four percent were female and six percent male. Eighty-two percent of teachers reported their race to be White, 4.3 percent Hispanic, 2.8 percent Black, 1.4 percent Asian, 1.4 percent American Indian, and 7.2 percent did not provide their race. Ninety-one percent of the teachers taught in public schools, 5.8 percent in private schools, and 2.8 percent in

schools with religious affiliations. Fifty-five percent of participants reported teaching in suburban school settings, 40.6 percent in urban schools, and 4.3 percent in rural settings.

The following are the reported grade levels by participants: 2.9 percent taught prekindergarten, 11.6 percent taught kindergarten, 23.2 percent taught first grade, 18.8 percent taught second grade, 21.7 percent taught third grade, 20.3 percent taught fourth grade, 17.4 percent taught fifth grade, and 8.7 percent taught sixth grade. It is important to note that 15 teachers reported teaching more than one grade level. Table 3.1

summarizes the demographics of the sample population.

Table 3.1  
*Demographic Information*

Description	N	Percentage
<b>Gender</b>		
Female	65	94
Male	4	6
<b>Race</b>		
American Indian	1	1.4
Asian	1	1.4
Black	2	2.8
Hispanic	3	4.3
Unknown	5	7.2
White	57	82
<b>School Type</b>		
Public	63	91.4
Private	4	5.8
Religious	2	2.8
<b>School Setting</b>		
Urban	28	40.6
Suburban	38	55.1
Rural	3	4.3
<b>Teaching Level*</b>		
PreK	2	2.9
K	8	11.6
1	16	23.2
2	13	18.8
3	15	21.7
4	14	20.3

5	12	17.4
6	6	8.7

Note. \*Fifteen teachers reported teaching more than one grade level

### Context

Research was conducted at Chapman College, a private university in the Northeast. It is located near several urban and suburban public elementary schools. The teacher education program at Chapman College offers a traditional four-year undergraduate degree and a twelve-month graduate degree program. There are approximately 100 undergraduates and approximately 100 graduate students who graduate from the teacher education program each year.

While undergraduates and graduates are not the same, they were grouped together for this study. They were both included in this study because both undergraduates and graduates have access to coursework in the areas of language education and special education at Chapman College. Further, all participants shared the same foundational background in elementary education.

### Measures

This study utilized five different measures (see Table 3.2). Three quantitative measures were used, including the 3YO survey, the LATS, and participants' teacher education coursework. Two qualitative measures were used, including an open response to a dilemma and a semi-structured interview. Detailed descriptions of each five measures follow.

Table 3.2.  
*Overview of Measures*

Measure	Participants	Frequency per participant	Totals
<i>Quantitative</i>			
Three-Year-Out Survey Data	$N = 69$	One survey	69 surveys
Language Attitude of Teachers Survey (LATS)	$N = 69$	One survey	69 surveys
Teacher Education Coursework	$N = 69$	One course history	69 course histories
<i>Qualitative</i>			
Open response to dilemma	$N = 9$	One open response	Nine open responses
Interview	$N = 9$	One 60 minute semi-structured individual interview	Nine interviews

### *Three-Year-Out Survey*

The 3YO survey is sent to teacher education graduates three years after graduation. While the survey tracks graduates' location and employment status, it also collects information about teachers' perceptions of their teacher education experience, their current practices, and their attitudes and perceptions about issues pertaining to working for social justice. Candidates were surveyed at the beginning of their program, upon completion of their program, and, one, two and three years after graduation (Ludlow, Pedulla, Enterline, Cochran-Smith, Loftus, Salomon-Fernandez, & Mitescu, 2008). They explained:

Although many survey items were specifically written and tailored to the [Chapman College] program and to the experiences of teacher candidates before, during, and after they matriculated, the [research team] also reviewed and drew

from instruments developed and used by other institutions in order to enrich the scope of the questions and to enhance survey use beyond [Chapman College]... Faculty, administrators and graduate students on the [research team] with expertise in measurement and assessment as well as teacher education acted as core researchers and developers of these surveys. In addition, faculty members in Teacher Education were invited to provide feedback on draft instruments. (p. 332)

Survey questions were based on the mission and themes of the University and Teacher Education program, including: Affirming Social Justice, Constructing Knowledge, Inquiring into Practice, Accommodating Diversity, and, Collaborating with Others. This study furthered the research scope of Chapman College's charge to use evidence to inform decisions about teacher education and commitment to "rais[e] questions that reflect cultural nuances and allow deliberation and disagreements regarding the purposes of schooling, the meaning of justice, and the life chances of school children" (Cochran-Smith et al., 2009, p. 465). This study connected these survey data with qualitative data in order to delve more deeply into graduates' experiences three years after graduation, with particular respect to the referral process of LDS. Sixteen of the 24 questions from this secondary data source were used to measure teacher graduates' practices and their attitudes (see Appendix D). Eight questions measured teachers' desirable practices (3YO-Desirable) and eight questions measured teachers' social justice practices (3YO-Social Justice).

#### *Language Attitudes of Teachers Scale (LATS)*

Participants' attitudes toward language and linguistic diversity were measured using the Language Attitudes of Teachers Scale (LATS) (Byrnes & Kiger, 1994), a 13-

item questionnaire in which participants respond to a variety of statements using a five-point Likert scale: strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree (see Appendix E). Based on prior principal components analyses (Byrnes & Kiger, 1994), the survey yielded three components: Language Politics, Limited English Proficiency Intolerance, and Language Support. Byrnes and Kiger (1994) generated the instrument based on classroom interviews, prior research, and integrating previous work on attitudinal measurement based on race and ethnicity. They evaluated the instrument's validity and reliability (Byrnes & Kiger, 1994; Byrnes, Kiger, & Manning, 1996, 1997). Construct validity was determined by looking at the association between the scale score and one item that measures a participant's willingness to have a language minority student in their classroom ( $r=.62$ ,  $N=169$ ; modest support) (Byrnes & Kiger, 1994). They reported the alpha reliability coefficient for the composite scale to be .81 and the test-retest reliability coefficient was  $r=.72$ . Collectively, the LATS was determined to be sufficiently valid and reliable.

### *Coursework*

All graduates completed coursework in elementary education and were teaching in a variety of settings across the country. It is important to note that Chapman College educates its preservice teachers based on a sociocultural foundation. Therefore, additional coursework would hopefully result in a greater fortification of the basic sociocultural approach students receive, even without TELL and special education coursework. There are three groups of graduates in this study (see Table 3.3):

**Group 1:** differentiates between undergraduates and graduate students



**Group 2:** includes graduates who have completed coursework in teaching students with moderate special needs. Undergraduates receive a special education minor (16 credits), while graduate students receive a master's degree and endorsement in moderate special needs (34 credits), or a master's degree without a license in curriculum and instruction (30 credits).

**Group 3:** includes graduates who completed any amount of coursework in teaching LDS. This group includes students who took a minimum of one course (3 credits). It includes students who graduated with a minor or completed certificate program; both include two courses (6 credits) and an assessment workshop.

It is important to note that four participants completed coursework in both moderate special needs and teaching English language learners. While the group was not large enough to create a separate group, two of the participants were placed in Group 2 and two placed in Group 3.

Table 3.3

*Teacher Education Coursework Groups*

	Group 1: By degree (under/graduate)	Group 2: EE + Moderate Special Needs	Group 3: EE + Teaching English language
Participants' Coursework	General elementary education coursework, plus:		
		Special education minor (UG) or major (G)	Any language coursework (minimum 3 credits)

*Response to a Dilemma Case Study*

Participants' reflective judgment was obtained through an open response to a dilemma case study (see Appendix F). Participants were presented with a case study

about a student who emigrated to the U.S. with the student's family one-year prior. The student's English language proficiency, academic achievement, and the context of the student's learning environment were presented. Then, the participant was prompted with the following questions: *Consider this student in the context presented. What do you think about this student? What kind of action(s) do you take?*

This instrument was previously piloted. The researcher constructed the dilemma, similar to case studies described in Harry, Klingner and Cramer (2007) and Genesee, Paradis and Crago (2004). First, members of the committee and the researcher discussed the purpose of the dilemma. Next, specific profiles and descriptions of a case study were generated. Then, the protocol was piloted with six in-service teachers who met the criteria similar to those met by participants in the 3YO study. Based on the pilot, changes were made to the content, presentation, and organization of the dilemma protocol. For example, five of the six teachers described being confused by the original prompt: *Consider the situation in the context presented above. As the teacher, what do you consider when you reflect on this learner? What would you do in this situation and why?* In addition, the first two teachers requested more information about the student's academic performance. Therefore, information about the student's current literacy skills as well as the student's performance based on state frameworks for second grade was added to the protocol. Finally, teachers requested specific examples of the student's English proficiency levels. These, too, were added to the protocol. After final revisions, the six participating teachers received a revised protocol and were asked for any final feedback. All six teachers reported that the revised protocol was readable, understandable and explicit.

### *Semi-structured interviews*

The semi-structured interview protocol was constructed and informed by the work of Brantlinger, Jimenez, Klingner, Pugach, and Richardson (2005) focusing on the use of qualitative research in special education and studies about the disproportionality of minority students in special education (e.g. Harry et al., 2002; Losen & Orfield, 2002) (see Appendix G). The interview protocol was constructed in a similar manner as the dilemma protocol and was piloted with the same six teachers. Changes were made to the content and organization of the dilemma protocol. For example, the probe, *“What is your opinion of native language instruction”* was changed to *“What is your opinion of native language instruction, for LDS students?”* In addition, questions 10 and 9 were reversed (9. *“Do you (in/formally) assess your students’ language skills? If so, how?”* and 10. *“What ways do you assess your students?”*). This way the general assessment question is asked first and then a specific question about assessing language skills follows. Like the dilemma protocol, after final revisions, the six participating teachers received a revised protocol and were asked for any final feedback. Six of the teachers recommended the continued use of the interview protocol and two teachers encouraged me to allow participants to go back at the end of the interview and add any missing information or details.

The interview protocol includes two parts: special education and LDS. The first part includes questions about the special education referral process. The second part includes questions about the participants’ thoughts and actions about the LDS in their classrooms. Questions and follow-up probes were used to give participants an opportunity to discuss their perceptions of the special education referral process in their

particular schools as well as specific questions about LDS. These included questions about participants' knowledge of learners, instructional decisions, language assessment, collaboration, and professional development. For example, one of the thirteen interview questions is: *What happens when you assess a linguistically diverse student and you confirm the student is NOT accessing the general curriculum?* Two follow-up probes include: *What do you think about? What kind of action(s) do you take?*

### Data Collection Procedure and Data Analysis

Using the sequential design to collect data, the quantitative data provided a general overview, while the nine participants who participated in the qualitative portion provided in-depth answers and perceptions on the research questions. The first step in the collection process was to submit a research application to Chapman College's Institutional Review Board (IRB) to obtain permission to conduct research with human subjects.

Permission was granted and the faculty researcher contacted 3YO survey participants to ask if they would like to be considered for the study. The faculty researcher sent multiple e-mail messages, highlighting the significance of the study and the benefits of participating. Eventually, 76 graduates agreed to participate. I contacted those who wanted to participate by e-mail and asked them to complete the LATS electronic survey, answer questions about their current teaching contexts, and identity whether or not they wanted to be contacted to participate in the second part of the study. Once the surveys were completed, I reviewed the results to determine whether or not the participants fit the study criteria. Five of the participants were not working as elementary classroom teachers (e.g. two were specialists, two were special educators, and one was

teaching high school). One participant did not complete the entire survey and another teacher did not teach in the last three years. Once these seven participants were removed from the original sample, 69 participants remained.

Next, I combined the 3YO-Desirable and 3YO-Social Justice survey results from the participants ( $N=69$ ) and coursework history with results from the LATS. I created a database in SPSS to organize the data. Once complete, I double-checked the survey responses to the SPSS database to ensure the accuracy of data entry.

Finally, nine participants who consented to the follow-up analyses, surveys, and interviews, were interviewed and completed the dilemma case study. I interviewed the participants at locations convenient for them. Each interview took between 60 and 90 minutes. I received permission from all participants to record the interviews. The electronic audio files were numbered for the purpose of identification. Any identifying information was removed and then the audio files were securely sent to a transcriber for transcription. Once checked for accuracy, the audio files were deleted. The researcher retained the surveys and transcripts for future research use. The surveys and interviews were coded with numbers and the names of teachers were not used. The code list contained the teacher's name and corresponding number. The code list and completed Informed Consent forms are stored in a locked cabinet in my office. The remainder of this section about data analysis is structured using the four research questions that guided the study.

*Research Question 1: What are the principal components of the three surveys administered to elementary teachers?*

Quantitative analyses were carried out using SPSS. Before examining the descriptive data, generating correlations, or creating regression models, the principal

components of all three surveys were determined. This iterative process was conducted on the eight-item 3YO-Desirable survey, the eight-item 3YO-Social Justice survey, and the 13-question LATS. I explored the relationships among the 3YO survey questions and attempted to confirm the components identified by Byrnes and Kiger (1994) within the LATS. Ultimately, the principal component analyses revealed that each instrument used in this study measured a separate, unidimensional construct; the LATS measured language attitudes, 3YO-Desirable measured teachers' desirable practices, and the 3YO-Social Justice measured teachers' practices for social justice. Table 3.4 describes the analyses used to determine the principal components of the three surveys.

Table 3.4

*Quantitative Data Analysis Procedures*

Measure	Description	Data Analysis
<i>Quantitative</i>		
Teacher Education Coursework	Identified participants' prior teacher education coursework	Frequency counts
Three-Year-Out Survey Data	3YO-Desirable; 3YO-Social Justice	Principal component analysis
Language Attitude of Teachers Survey (LATS)	Thirteen question survey; 5-point Likert scale (strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, strongly disagree)	Principal component analysis

*Research Question 2: What are the relationships between teachers' practices, language attitudes, and teacher education coursework?*

Since the principal component analysis determined that each survey measured a separate construct, it was then appropriate to examine the descriptive statistics of and correlations between attitudes and coursework as well as between practices and coursework at the item and total score levels.

First, I examined the descriptive information available from the survey and coursework data. Both the 3YO and LATS were examined at the item level; the mean and standard deviation of each item in both surveys were considered. I determined frequency count for each of the three groups. A count as well as the percentage of the whole was identified. Collectively, the descriptive data informed the next step of the analyses.

Second, I conducted a correlation analysis at the item level as well as across instruments. Correlations between language attitudes, social justice practices and desirable practices uncovered in the principal component analyses were measured. Finally, to understand the relationships between the variables, the predictive value of the independent variables on teachers' practice for social justice and teachers' desirable practices were explored. For the multiple regression models, these three predictor variables were entered: (a) language attitude (LATS score); (b) type of degree (under/graduate); (c) teacher education language coursework (yes/no); and, (d) teacher education special education coursework (yes/no). Chapter Four explains the regression models in greater detail, including a description of the variables, the hypotheses, and the results.

*Research Question 3: How do the results from Research Question 2 inform sample selection for Research Question 4?*

Using SPSS, a residual analysis was conducted to select participants for Research Question 4. I randomly selected three participants whose residuals (observed minus the predicted score) were in line with the predictive model. Then, I selected six participants from a range of standard deviations around the regression line as determined by a numeric residual analysis. In total, nine participants were selected, based on their residual scores.

*Research Question 4: What are the decision-making practices of a representative sample of practicing elementary teachers who educate linguistically diverse students?*

Given the nature of the question, RQ4 was answered qualitatively and participants were identified via procedures outlined in RQ2 and 3. Qualitative data collection and analysis included gathering participants' responses to a dilemma (see Appendix F) and their responses to interview questions (see Appendix G).

To analyze responses to dilemmas and obtain teachers' levels of reflective judgment, this study used King and Kitchener (1994) Reflective Judgment Model (RJM). Instead of following King and Kitchener's specific Reflective Judgment Interview (RJI) protocol, this study used a discipline-specific problem (a LDS who was not accessing the general curriculum) constructed by the researcher. Previously, discipline-specific problems were tested in business, chemistry, and psychology, but this specific dilemma for elementary education teachers was new.

The Reflective Judgment Model (King & Kitchener, 1994) was used to analyze the dilemma case study (see Appendix H). The Reflective Judgment Model (RJM) suggests that individuals view knowledge and reason about ill-defined problems through seven stages (King & Kitchener, 1994). In Stage 1 knowing is concrete, limited to what the senses justify: "Seeing is believing." Stage 2 thinkers justify knowledge via observation or authorities. At Stage 3, thinkers consult authorities or integrate what "feels right." For adults at Stage 4, which describes the thinking of most college seniors knowledge emerges as a single abstraction and is understood as uncertain but idiosyncratic and unjustified. At Stage 5 knowledge is justified by rules of inquiry for a particular context. Stage 6 thinkers use generalized rules of inquiry, personal evaluations or evaluated views of experts to justify claims. Thinking at the highest level of RJ, Stage



7 is a systematic evaluation of evidence using generalizable, evaluative criteria and thorough and compelling understanding. Stages 1-3 are considered Pre-Reflective, Stages 4-5 Quasi-Reflective, and Stages 6-7 Reflective. The model views knowing and understanding as a dynamic process that continually improves.

Levels are determined through analysis of semi-structured interviews, which are rated for competence in general and specific dimensions. The general dimension addresses cognitive complexity, reasoning style, and openness. Within these three areas, raters also consider how the thinker views and justifies knowledge. Using the criteria listed in Appendix H, committee member and trained Reflective Judgment Model rater Dr. Audrey Friedman read and scored each dilemma. Based on participants' responses to the case study's ill-structured dilemma, they received a score for cognitive complexity, reasoning style, and openness, which were averaged according to rating protocols.

Descriptions of pre-reflective reasoning includes failing to acknowledge "that knowledge is uncertain," not understanding "that real problems exist for which there may not be an absolutely correct answer," and "not us[ing] evidence to reason toward a conclusion" (King & Kitchener, 1994, p. 47). Participants with quasi-reflective reasoning "recognize that some problems are ill structured and that knowledge claims about them contain an element of uncertainty," "they understand that some issues are truly problematic," but "have difficulty when they are asked to draw a reasoned conclusion or to justify their beliefs" (King & Kitchener, 1994, p. 58). Participants with reflective reasoning can "argue that knowledge is not a 'given' but must be actively constructed and claims of knowledge must be understood in relation to the context in which they are generated" (King & Kitchener, 1994, p. 66). Further, reflective participants "argue that

while judgments must be grounded in relevant data, conclusions should remain open to reevaluation” (p. 66). King and Kitchener liken this stage of reasoning to Dewey’s (1933) reflective thinking or reflective judgment. The RJM serves as a way to qualitatively measure teachers’ responses to ill-defined dilemmas, specifically about a struggling LDS. It is important to note that while responses to the dilemmas included information about participants’ decision-making practices, for the purpose of this dissertation, this data source was used exclusively to examine participants’ levels of reflective judgment.

Interview data analyses were carried out using HyperRESEARCH, software used to manage and code qualitative data (see Table 3.5). This study employed a qualitative coding methodology identified by Strauss & Corbin (1990). Three types of coding – open, axial, and selective coding – took place during and after data collection. First, open-ending coding was used to identify salient ideas, patterns, and concepts within the responses to semi-structured interview questions. Second, the data and initial codes were reanalyzed using axial coding. Then, the codes were organized into broader themes. Finally, the data were scanned and organized according to core ideas (Neumann, 2005) and grouped into larger domains. The analysis was an ongoing iterative process and data reduction techniques were used to continually focus on themes connected to the research questions.

Table 3.5

*Qualitative Data Analysis Procedures*

Measure	Description	Data Analysis
<i>Qualitative</i>		
Open response to dilemma	One open response	Reflective Judgment Scoring Instrument
Interviews	One semi-structured interview (includes questions about special education and LDS)	Open and axial coding – into broader themes; Identification of domains

To organize the domains and themes, I used Spradley's (1979) taxonomies. Three domains were identified within the data: (a) What Teachers Say They KNOW; (b) What Teachers Say They DO; and, (c) What Teachers THINK. The semantic relationship identified and used in the taxonomies was "strict inclusion," (Spradley, 1979) meaning X is a kind of Y. For example, within the domain, What Teachers Say They DO, four themes emerged from the data: (a) assessment; (b) instruction; (c) professional practice; and, (d) special education practice. Then, within the third theme, professional practice, three sub-themes were identified: advocating, collaborating, and outsourcing to colleagues. This means that advocating, collaborating, and outsourcing to colleagues were ways teachers said they engaged with professional practice. Further, assessment, instruction, professional practice, and special education practice were all types of practices teachers reported engaging in. The goal of collecting and analyzing this qualitative data in this way was to generate greater understanding and provide valid and reliable findings of how teachers perceive what they KNOW, DO, and THINK with regard to the LDS they educate.

This study was situated in sociocultural theory, as presented in Chapter 1, and strengthened by the use of a sequential exploratory design (Creswell et al., 2003). Each

research question relies on the outcome(s) of the previous one and all are predicated on the fact that context matters. For example, results from RQ1, using PCA, identify the components for this particular group of teachers on three particular surveys. This context sets the stage for the quantitative analysis of the relationships between variables. Then, based on participants' responses within their school contexts, a representative sample was identified. Finally, the qualitative analyses are situated wholly in each of the nine participants' lived experiences. Collectively, the data gathered for this study dovetail together to create an explanation of factors that inform teachers' decision-making practices.

#### Combined Data Analysis and Integration Procedures

This study included connected data analyses. Following a sequential explanatory design (Creswell et al., 2003) the collection and analysis of quantitative data occurred first, then the collection and analysis of qualitative data occurred. Finally, the connected data were interpreted together and overall results were offered.

The final phase of analysis included interpreting the corpus of data as a whole. The combination of quantitative and qualitative data, as stated earlier, increased internal validity, generated insightful understandings, and provided a more comprehensive description (Greene et al., 2001) of study participants' teacher education coursework and attitudes, and how they explained the way participants made decisions. The integrated design, meaning the combination of measures, collection and analyses throughout the study, is aligned with a dialectic mixed-method framework. As Greene, et al. (2001) describe:

With an integrated design, the different methods are blended, united, and

dialectically combined into a coherent whole, so that evaluation results are more a synthesis of all study data and less a report of findings from each method separately. Integrated designs are generative, yielding new insights, fresh perspectives, or redirected questions. (p. 31)

Concurrent analyses were central to this study. In particular, both quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed descriptively and then condensed. So, quantitative data were reduced by tests of power and significance and qualitative data were reduced to themes and domains. Then, both types of condensed data were analyzed together “for instances of convergence, complementarity, and discordance” (Greene, et al., 2001, p. 35). Collectively, the quantitative data, including results of surveys and each participant’s individual coursework history, were examined *with* the qualitative, interview and case study dilemma data. For example, I looked for patterns based on the participants’ coursework history and themes that appeared in their responses to the case study dilemma. For example, I asked: *Is there a connection between the participants’ coursework history and themes generated within their interview?* Or, I asked: *Is there a connection between the participants’ reflective judgment, placement on language continuum, or placement on the desirable practice continuum?* I searched for connections and patterns between and among teacher candidates’ attitudes, coursework, and their decision-making practices. Since discrepancies and/or areas of convergence appeared within the data, it provided examples of multiple ways of knowing, central to the dialectic approach.

### Limitations

This study's limitations were connected to the context, sample population, design, and my research assumptions. The study included graduates from one teacher education program. As stated earlier, Chapman College educates its preservice teachers based on a sociocultural foundation. The context was important to acknowledge when analyzing participants' responses. Further, teacher graduates who completed their programs in 2004, 2005, and 2006, and those who agree to participate in this study bound the study. The results from the 3YO study were collected in the summers of 2007, 2008 and 2009, but the results of the LATS and qualitative measures were collected in 2010. This elapsed time frame is important to acknowledge as teachers' attitudes and/or practices may have changed over time. My experiences and assumptions as a special educator, teacher educator and teacher researcher may have influenced this study. These may have affected the way qualitative data is analyzed and interpreted.

The design of the study could have been strengthened by incorporating observations of teachers' classroom practice and student interviews, to offset the large amount of teacher-reported data. This was not possible because of time constraints and limited resources. However, the research design did address all four of the research questions. The comprehensive results from this study provided insight into teachers' perceptions of their decision-making practices as well as the variables, which contributed to their actions.

## CHAPTER FOUR: QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

### Preliminary Data

Preliminary analyses are based on data generated from three surveys: the Language Attitudes of Teachers Scale (LATS), Three-Year-Out: Practice for Social Justice (3YO-SJ), and Three-Year-Out: Desirable Practice (3YO-Desirable). Descriptive statistics were generated for the overall sample and for three groups based on type of degree (under/graduate), teacher education coursework in special education/general education, and teacher education language coursework (see Chapter 3 for a detailed description of each group). Overall findings for each of the three surveys, for the entire sample and for the three groups follow.

#### *Language Attitudes of Teachers Scale*

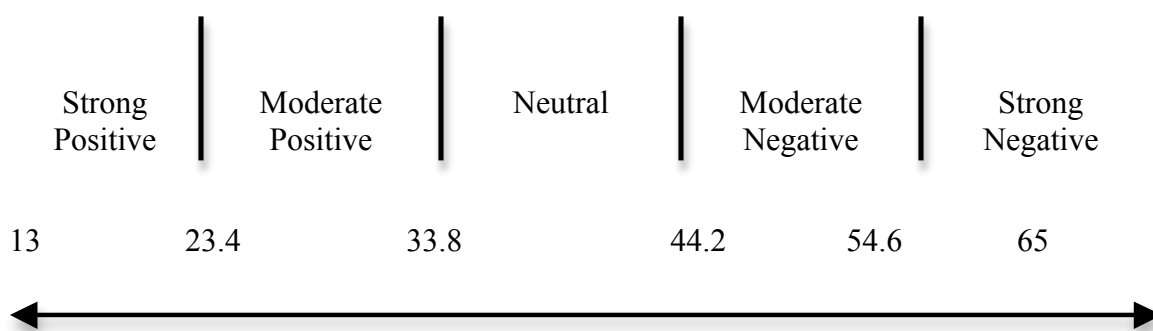
The Language Attitudes of Teachers Scale (LATS: Byrnes & Kiger, 1994) was one of three surveys used in this study. The LATS consists of 13 items designed to measure teachers' attitudes about language. Teachers responded to a series of items on a five-point Likert Scale, where 5 equaled "Strongly Agree," 4 indicated "Agree," 3 indicated "Uncertain," 2 indicated "Disagree," and 1 indicated "Strongly Disagree." For 10 of 13 questions, the most desirable response was 1 (Strongly Disagree). For three of the responses, the most desirable response was a 5 (Strongly Agree). Therefore, when total scores were computed, three of the questions were reverse-scored. The total possible range of scores was 13 to 65. It is important to note that lower scores correspond to more positive attitudes towards language. Inversely, a higher score was associated with a more negative language attitude.

In order to interpret and qualify the results from the LATS, I created a Continuum

of Language Diversity Commitment (See Figure 4.1). Possible scores ranged from 13 to 65, with 13 being the most positive score and 65 the most negative score. Using increments of 10.4 (the range divided into five equal parts), the range of scores was labeled. Therefore, LATS sum scores between 13 and 23.4 were “Strongly Positive,” scores between 23.5 and 33.8 were “Moderate Positive,” and scores between 33.9 and 44.2 were “Neutral.” “Moderate Positive” attitudes were sum scores between 44.3 and 54.6 and “Strong Negative” attitudes were sum scores between 54.7 and 65.

Figure 4.1

*Continuum of Language Diversity Commitment*

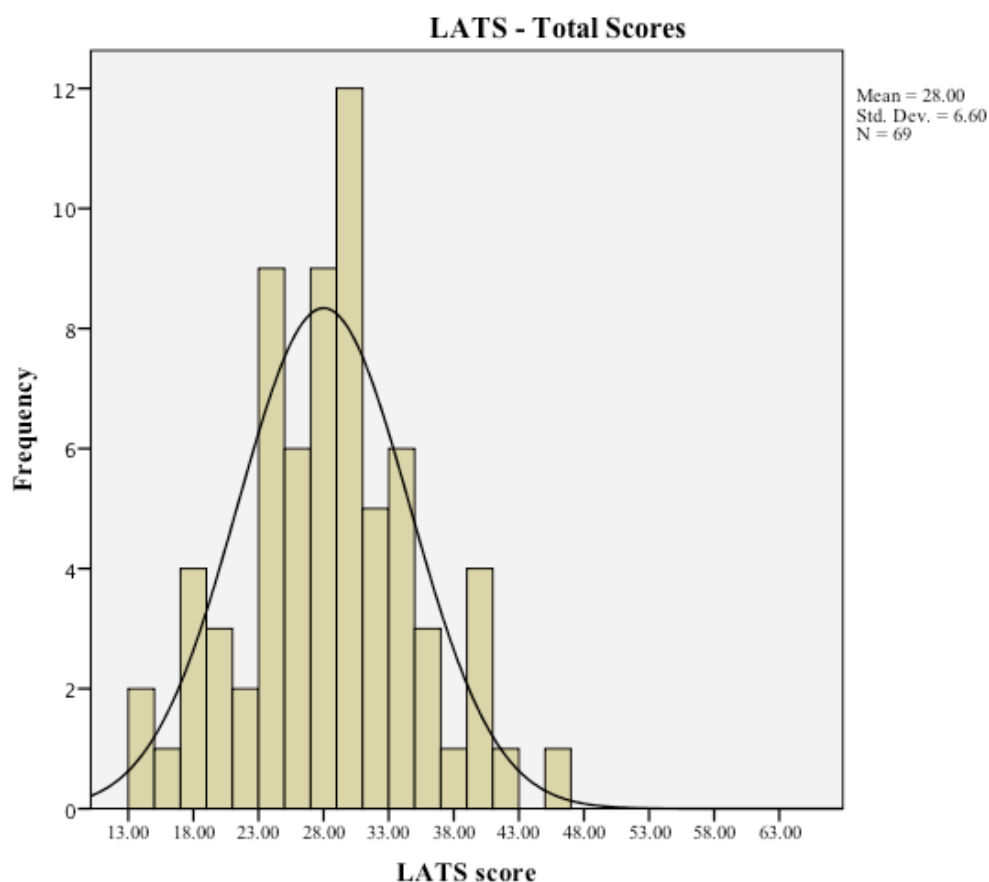


*Overall Language Attitudes Among Teachers*

The overall sample mean for the LATS was 28.0 (SD=6.6), indicating scores associated with moderate positive language attitudes. This study’s minimum score was 14 and the maximum score was 46 (See Figure 4.2). By comparison, Byrnes, Kiger, and Manning’s (1997) sample mean ( $\bar{x}$ =32.99, SD=7.6) indicated scores associated with mild positive language attitudes, or slightly more negative than the current study.



Figure 4.2

*Overall LATS Scores*

While the overall mean indicated moderate positive language attitudes, it was necessary to examine the 13 items individually so unique patterns and/or differences could be identified. While many item responses produced clear distinctions between agreement and disagreement, there were also item responses that showed variability (See Appendix E).

Generally participants agreed with four of the 13 items on the LATS. Participants responded with overwhelming agreement (92.7%) to items 2 (*I would support the government spending additional money to provide better programs for linguistic-minority*

*students in public schools*) and 9 (*Regular-classroom teachers should be required to receive pre-service or in-service training to be prepared to meet the needs of linguistic minorities*) (94.2%) (See Table 4.1). Both statements supported spending and training for language support of LDS and their teachers. Eight-seven percent strongly agreed or agreed with item 4 (*It is important that people in the US learn a language in addition to English*). Over 72 percent strongly agreed or agreed with item 12 (*English should be the official language of the United States*). While the majority of participants believed people should know English and another language, more than two-thirds strongly agree or agree that English should be the official language of the United States. Regardless of what other language(s) people learn, many participants identified English as the most important language.

Participants generally disagreed with six items on the LATS. An overwhelming majority (95.7%) of respondents either strongly disagreed or disagreed with item 8 (*Having a non- or limited-English-proficient student in the classroom is detrimental to the learning of the other students*) and item 10 (*Most non- and limited-English-proficient children are not motivated to learn English*). Items 8 and 10 depicted LDS as unmotivated and detrimental to their peers, while item 13 (*Non- and limited-English-proficient students often use unjustified claims of discrimination as an excuse, for not doing well in school*) addressed issues of language tolerance. Over 68 percent of teachers strongly disagreed or disagreed with item 13. Item 5 (*It is unreasonable to expect a regular classroom teacher to teach a child who does not speak English*) had 73.9 percent who strongly disagreed or disagreed. With regard to instruction in particular, item 6 (*The rapid learning of English should be a priority for non-English-proficient or limited-*

*English-proficient students even if it means they lose the ability to speak their native language*) had 69.6 percent disagreement. Finally, 69.6 percent of participants strongly disagreed or disagreed with item 7 (*Local and state governments should require that all government business be conducted only in English*). The inverse responses for these six items are important to highlight. For example, while 73.9 percent strongly disagreed or disagreed with item 5, 13 percent strongly agreed or agreed that it is unreasonable for a classroom teacher to teach a LDS, and 13 percent reported being uncertain. Thirteen percent of respondents strongly agreed or agreed (Item 7) that government business should be conducted only in English, while over 17 percent reported being uncertain.

Items that showed a range of responses were item 11 (*At school, the learning of the English language by non- or limited-English-proficient children should take precedence over learning subject matter*), item 3 (*Parents of non- or limited-English-proficient students should be counseled to speak English with their children whenever possible*), and item 1 (*To be considered American, one should speak English*). These three items had the largest standard deviations across all 13 items (item 11: SD=1.05; item 3: SD=1.21; item 1: SD=1.1). Responses to item 11 ( $\bar{x}=2.49$ , SD=1.05) included: 58 percent strongly disagree or disagree, 20.3 percent strongly agree or agree, and 21.7 percent uncertain. While over 50 percent disagreed, over 20 percent of participants reported being uncertain about their priorities around teaching LDS English and subject matter.

Responses to item 3 ( $\bar{x}=2.64$ , SD=1.21) include: 52.2 percent strongly disagree or disagree, 31.8 percent strongly agree or agree, and 15.9 percent uncertain. Compared to item 11, participants reported more agreement with item 3 and less uncertainty (15.9 %).

Over one-third of participants agreed that parents of LDS should speak English to their children whenever possible. Responses to item 1 ( $\bar{x}=2.46$ ,  $SD=1.1$ ) include: 65.2 percent strongly disagree or disagree, 23.1 percent strongly agree or agree, and 11.6 percent uncertain. According to over 20 percent of participants, one should speak English in order to be considered American.

Levels of uncertainty were evident throughout the survey data. In three items (6, 11, 13), in particular, over 20 percent of participants reported uncertainty. Items 6 and 11 both reported 21.7 percent of participants as uncertain. While almost 70 percent disagreed with item 6 (*The rapid learning of English should be a priority for non-English-proficient or limited-English-proficient students even if it means they lose the ability to speak their native language*), over 20 percent were uncertain. Fifty-eight percent disagreed with item 11 (*The learning of the English language by non- or limited-English-proficient children should take precedence over learning subject matter*), and 21.7 percent were uncertain. Item 13 (*non- and limited-English-proficient students often use unjustified claims of discrimination as an excuse, for not doing well in school*) captured the largest percentage of uncertainty (30.4 %). While items 6 and 11 address issues about the priority of learning English in schools, item 13 refers to teachers' specific views of LDS and whether or not claims of discrimination are used "as an excuse for not doing well in school."

Table 4.1

*LATS Item Analysis*

Item		Response**				
		1 SD	2 D	3 U	4 A	5 SA
Item 1: To be considered American, one should speak English.	Frequency	11	34	8	13	3
	%	15.9	49.3	11.6	18.8	4.3
	Mean = 2.46; SD = 1.1					
Item 2: I would support the government spending additional money to provide better programs for linguistic-minority students in public schools.	Frequency	1	0	4	39	25
	%	1.4	0.0	5.8	56.5	36.2
	Mean = 1.74; SD = 0.69					
Item 3: Parents of non- or limited-English-proficient students should be counseled to speak English with their children whenever possible.	Frequency	14	22	11	19	3
	%	20.3	31.9	15.9	27.5	4.3
	Mean = 2.64; SD = 1.21					
Item 4: It is important that people in the U.S. learn a language in addition to English.*	Frequency	0	2	7	40	20
	%	0.0	2.9	10.1	58.0	29.0
	Mean = 1.87; SD = 0.71					
Item 5: It is unreasonable to expect a regular classroom teacher to teach a child who does not speak English.	Frequency	20	31	9	7	2
	%	29.0	44.9	13.0	10.1	2.9
	Mean = 2.13; SD = 0.91					
Item 6: The rapid learning of English should be a priority for non-English-proficient or limited-English-proficient students even if it means they lose the ability to speak their native language.	Frequency	18	30	15	6	0
	%	26.1	43.5	21.7	8.7	0.0
	Mean = 2.13; SD = 0.91					
Item 7: Local and state governments should require that all government business (including voting) be	Frequency	19	29	12	7	2

conducted only in English.	%	27.5	42.0	17.4	10.1	2.9
Mean = 2.19; SD = 1.0						
Item 8: Having a non- or limited-English-proficient student in the classroom is detrimental to the learning of the other students.	Frequency	37	29	3	0	0
	%	53.6	42.0	4.3	0.0	0.0
Mean = 1.51; SD = 0.59						
Item 9: Regular-classroom teachers should be required to receive pre-service or in-service training to be prepared to meet the needs of linguistic minorities.*	Frequency	1	1	2	23	42
	%	1.4	1.4	2.9	33.3	60.9
Mean = 1.49; SD = 0.76						
Item 11: At school, the learning of the English language by non- or limited-English-proficient children should take precedence over learning subject matter.	Frequency	11	29	15	12	2
	%	15.9	42.0	21.7	17.4	2.9
Mean = 2.49; SD = 1.05						
Item 12: English should be the official language of the United States.	Frequency	4	3	12	38	12
	%	5.8	4.3	17.4	55.1	17.4
Mean = 3.74; SD = 0.99						
Item 13: Non- and limited-English-proficient students often use unjustified claims of discrimination as an excuse for not doing well in school.	Frequency	15	32	21	1	0
	%	21.7	46.4	30.4	1.4	0.0
Mean = 3.74; SD = 0.99						
Note. *Indicates reverse scoring; ** 5 = "Strongly Agree," 4 = "Agree," 3 = "Uncertain," 2 = "Disagree," and 1 = "Strongly Disagree"						

### *Language Attitudes Among Teachers by Groups*

Table 4.2 presents group-disaggregated data from the LATS, including: type of degree, teacher education coursework in special education, and teacher education coursework in language. Participants with a graduate degree from Chapman College had

a lower mean score on the LATS ( $\bar{x}=26.45$ ,  $SD=7.28$ ) than the undergraduate group ( $\bar{x}=29.39$ ,  $SD=5.66$ ), indicating a more positive attitude. The difference between groups approached significance ( $p=.068$ ). These findings suggest that participants with either degree have moderate positive language attitudes. Participants who took special education coursework in addition to their elementary coursework scored in the moderate positive range on the LATS ( $\bar{x}=27.65$ ,  $SD=7.4$ ), like the group who took only elementary education coursework ( $\bar{x}=28.1$ ,  $SD=6.4$ ). Results indicated no significant differences between the groups showing that both groups had moderate positive language attitudes. The data showed that participants who took some degree of language coursework ( $\bar{x}=24.94$ ,  $SD=5.7$ ) had lower mean scores or strong positive attitudes toward linguistic diversity, compared to participants who did not take language coursework ( $\bar{x}=28.92$ ,  $SD=6.6$ ) who had moderate positive language attitudes. While group sizes were different, the differences found between the two groups were significant ( $p=.033$ ). These findings suggest that participants who took some degree of language coursework at Chapman College had stronger, positive attitudes toward language and linguistic diversity. While there were no significant differences found between participants who took coursework in special education and those who did not, as well as type of degree (under/graduate), there were significant differences found between participants who took language coursework and those who did not ( $p=.033$ ). Teachers who took language coursework reported stronger positive language attitudes, compared to teachers who did not have this coursework.

Table 4.2

*Language Attitudes of Teachers Scale by Groups*

		N	$\bar{x}$ (SD)	t	p
	Total	69	28.00 (6.6)		
Type of Degree	Undergraduate	36	29.39 (5.66)	-1.86	.068
	Graduate	33	26.48 (7.28)		
TE coursework: elementary/special education	Elementary Coursework ONLY	52	28.1 (6.4)	-.252	.802
	Elementary and Special Education Coursework	17	27.65 (7.4)		
TE coursework: language	NO Language Coursework	53	28.92 (6.6)	-2.18	.033*
	SOME degree of Language Coursework	16	24.94 (5.7)		

 $p < .05$ *Three-Year-Out: Practice for Social Justice*

The Three-Year-Out: Practice for Social Justice (3YO-SJ) Survey was the second of three surveys used in this study. The 3YO-SJ consisted of eight items, taken from the larger, 12-item scale. The items measured the degree to which teachers reported engaging in social justice practices. The scale began with the following prompt: “Thinking about your teaching experiences over the past year, respond to the following statements about your teaching practices.” Teachers responded to a series of items on a five-point Likert Scale, where 5 equaled “Strongly Agree,” 4 indicated “Agree,” 3 indicated “Uncertain,” 2 indicated “Disagree,” and 1 indicated “Strongly Disagree.” The higher the score on the 3YO-SJ items, the more affirmatively teachers reported engaging in social justice

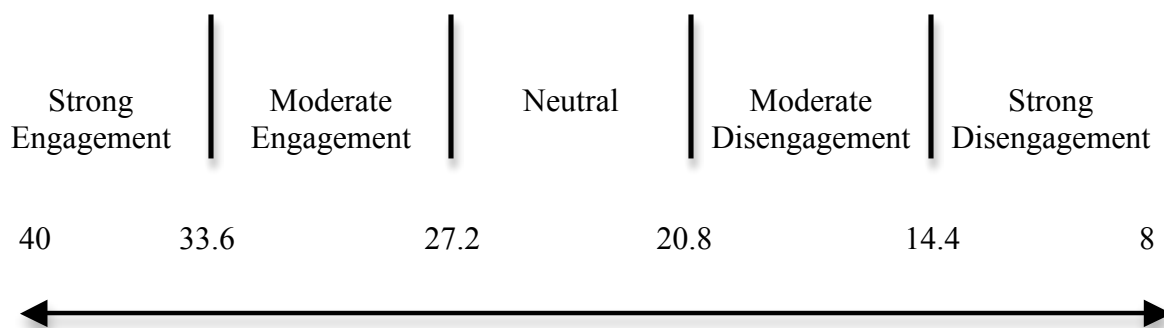


practices. Inversely, the lower the score, the teachers reported less engagement in social justice practices.

In order to interpret and label the results from the 3YO-SJ, I created a Continuum of Social Justice Commitment (See Figure 4.3). The possible range of scores was from 8 to 40, with 40 as strong engagement in social justice practices and 8 as weak engagement in such practices. For four questions, the most desirable response was a 5 for the remaining four responses, the most desirable response was 1. Therefore, when total scores were computed, four questions were reverse-scored. Using increments of 6.4 (the range divided into five equal parts), the range of scores was labeled. Therefore, 3YO-SJ sum scores between 33.6 and 40 were “Strong Engagement”; scores between 27.2 and 33.5 were “Moderate Engagement”; and “Neutral” were sum scores between 20.7 and 27.1. 3YO-SJ sum scores between 8 and 14.4 were “Strong Disengagement,” and scores between 14.5 and 20.8 were “Moderate Disengagement.”

Figure 4.3

*Continuum of Social Justice Commitment*



*Overall Practice for Social Justice Among Teachers*

The overall mean for the 3YO-SJ was 32.36, indicating teachers report strong

engagement in social justice practices (  $\bar{x}$ =32.36, SD=3.57). The minimum score was 25 and the maximum score was 40 (See Figure 4.4). An item analysis follows, including response patterns and trends.

While the overall mean indicated that teachers self-reported strong engagement in social justice practices (  $\bar{x}$ =32.36, SD=3.57), it was necessary to examine each item individually to identify unique patterns and/or differences. Although most item responses produced evidence for engaging in social justice practices, there were some responses that included variability (See Table 4.3).

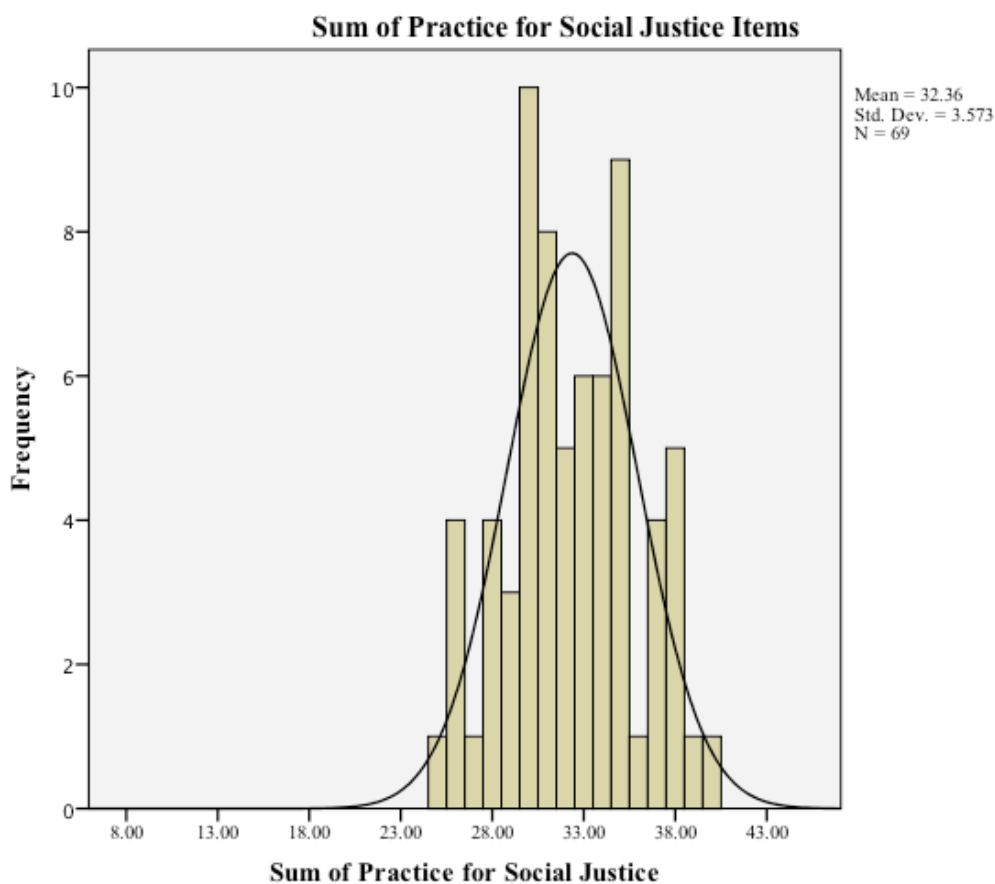
Generally, teachers' responses to items on the 3YO-SJ survey were positive; mean scores exceeded 3.79 on all eight individual items. Over 95 percent of participants strongly agreed or agreed with Item 39 (*An important part of being a teacher is examining my attitudes and beliefs about race, class, gender, disabilities, and sexual orientation.*) (  $\bar{x}$ =4.4, SD=0.63) and item 42 (*I incorporate diverse cultures and experiences into my classroom lessons and discussions.*) (  $\bar{x}$ =4.39, SD=0.63). Teachers reported that self-reflection was important to their practice and the majority reported that they incorporated diversity into their classrooms. The remaining six items reported a range of 71 percent (item 43) to 84.1 percent (item 41) agreement (See Appendix D).

While the majority of items on the survey had positive responses, it was important to examine three items that reported agreement to negative statements of practice. While over 84 percent of participants strongly disagreed or disagreed with item 41 (*For the most part, covering multicultural topics is NOT relevant to the subjects I teach*), over 11 percent strongly agreed or agreed with the statement. Similarly over 10 percent of participants strongly agreed or agreed with item 44 (*It's reasonable for me to have lower*

*classroom expectations for students who don't speak English as their first language.*) ( $\bar{x}$  = 3.98, SD = 1.0). Like item 41, which addressed teachers' expectations of LDS, item 45 asks if teachers challenged, "school arrangements that maintain social inequities." Six percent of participants reported strongly disagreeing or disagreeing with item 45. Like the LATS, levels of uncertainty were evident throughout the 3YO-SJ survey. Results from item 40 (*Issues related to racism and inequality are openly discussed in my classroom.*), item 48 (*Although I appreciate diversity, it's NOT my job as a teacher to change society.*), and item 43 (*The most important goal for me in working with immigrant children and English language learners is to assimilate them into American society.*)

Figure 4.4

#### *Overall Practice for Social Justice Among Teachers*



included 15 percent or more of participants who report being uncertain. Both item 40 and item 48 reported 15.9 percent of uncertainty, while item 43 reports 21.7 percent.

Table 4.3

*3YO – Practice for Social Justice Item Analysis*

Item		Response**				
		1 SD	2 D	3 U	4 A	5 SA
Item 39: An important part of being a teacher is examining my attitudes and beliefs about race, class, gender, disabilities, and sexual orientation.	Frequency	0	1	2	34	32
	%	0.0	1.4	2.9	49.3	46.4
	Mean = 4.4; SD = 0.63					
Item 40: Issues related to racism and inequality is openly discussed in my classroom.	Frequency	0	5	11	31	22
	%	0.0	7.2	15.9	44.9	31.9
	Mean = 4.01; SD = 0.88					
Item 41: For the most part, covering multicultural topics is <u>NOT</u> relevant to the subjects I teach.*	Frequency	18	40	3	7	1
	%	26.1	58.0	4.3	10.1	1.4
	Mean = 3.97; SD = 0.92					
Item 42: I incorporate diverse cultures and experiences into my classroom lessons and discussions.	Frequency	0	1	2	34	31
	%	0.0	1.5	2.9	50.0	45.6
	Mean = 4.39; SD = 0.63					
Item 43: The most important goal for me in working with immigrant children and English language learners is to assimilate them into American society.*	Frequency	11	38	15	5	0
	%	15.9	55.1	21.7	7.2	0.0
	Mean = 3.79; SD = 0.79					
Item 44: It's reasonable for me to have lower classroom expectations for students who don't speak English as their first language.*	Frequency	23	31	8	5	2
	%	33.3	44.9	11.6	7.2	2.9
	Mean = 3.98; SD = 1.0					

Item 45: Part of my responsibility as a teacher is to challenge school arrangements that maintain societal inequities.	Frequency	2	2	9	37	17
Mean = 3.98; SD = 1.0	%	3.0	3.0	13.4	55.2	25.4
Item 48: Although I appreciate diversity, it's <u>NOT</u> my job as a teacher to change society.*	Frequency	18	37	11	3	0
Mean = 4.01; SD = 0.78	%	26.1	53.6	15.9	4.3	0.0

Note. \*Indicates reverse-scoring; \*\* 5 = "Strongly Agree," 4 = "Agree," 3 = "Uncertain," 2 = "Disagree," and 1 = "Strongly Disagree."

### *Practice for Social Justice Among Teachers by Group*

Data from the 3YO-SJ were disaggregated by group, including: type of degree, teacher education coursework in special education, and teacher education coursework in language (See Table 4.4). Participants with an undergraduate degree from Chapman College had a slightly higher mean score on the 3YO-SJ ( $\bar{x}$ =32.58, SD=3.25) than the graduate group ( $\bar{x}$ =32.12, SD=3.93). These findings suggest that participants with either degree reported engaging in social justice practices at about the same frequency.

Participants who took special education coursework in addition to their elementary coursework had a slightly lower mean score on the 3YO-SJ ( $\bar{x}$ =32.2, SD=3.96) than the group who took only elementary education coursework ( $\bar{x}$ =32.4, SD=3.48).

Participants' mean scores were similar, like the degree groups, regardless of teacher education coursework in special education; therefore, both groups reported engaging in practices for social justices at almost the same level.

The data showed that participants who took some degree of language coursework ( $\bar{x}$ =32.75, SD=3.0) had slightly higher mean scores than participants who did not take language coursework ( $\bar{x}$ =32.25, SD=3.74). Similar to the other two groups, these

findings suggest that participants' mean scores are similar, regardless of teacher education coursework in language. In summary, there were no statistically significant differences found between the three group means for teachers' reported use of practices for social justice.

Table 4.4

*Practice for Social Justice Among Teachers by Group*

		N	$\bar{x}$ (SD)	t	p
Type of Degree	Total	69	32.36 (3.57)	-.534	.595
	Undergraduate	36	32.58 (3.25)		
	Graduate	33	32.12 (3.93)		
TE coursework: elementary/special education	Elementary Coursework ONLY	52	32.4 (3.48)	-.168	.867
	Elementary and Special Education Coursework	17	32.2 (3.96)		
TE coursework: language	NO Language Coursework	53	32.25 (3.74)	.492	.624
	SOME Language Coursework	16	32.75 (3.0)		

*Three-Year-Out: Desirable Practice*

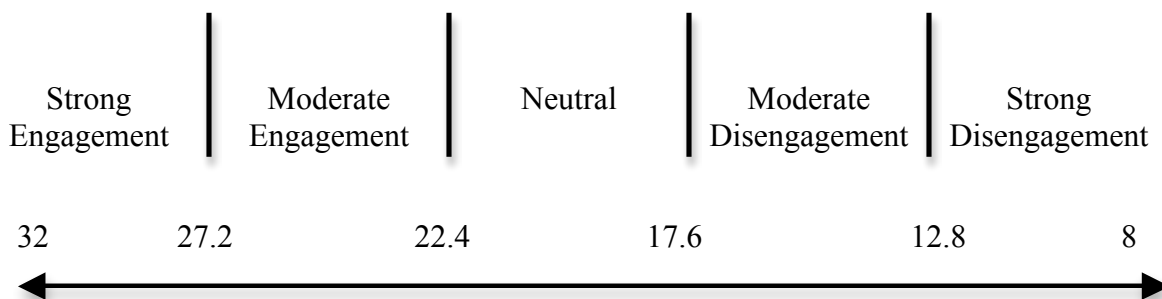
The Three-Year-Out: Desirable Practice (3YO-Desirable) Survey was the third survey used in this study. The 3YO-Desirable consisted of eight items, taken from the larger, 12-item scale. The items measured the degree to which teachers reported engaging in general, desirable practices. This scale begins with the following prompt: "Thinking about your classroom and school experiences, rate the extent to which you have used the following practices in your teaching." Teachers responded to each item using a four-point

Scale: “Often” which is given a score of 4; “Sometimes” which is given a score of 3; “Rarely” which is given a score of 2; and, “Never” which is given a score of 1. The higher the score on the 3YO-Desirable a desirable practice was implemented as reported by the teacher. Inversely, the lower the teacher’s score, the less frequently a desirable practice was implemented.

In order to interpret and label the results from the 3YO-Desirable, I created a Continuum of Desirable Practice Commitment (See Figure 4.5). The possible range of scores was from 8 to 32, with 32 as strong engagement in desirable practices and 8 as weak engagement in desirable practices. For seven of eight questions, the most desirable response was a 4. For one response, the most desirable response was a 1. Therefore, when total scores were computed, one of the questions was reverse-scored. Using increments of 4.8 (the range divided into five equal parts), the range of scores was labeled. Therefore, 3YO-Desirable sum scores between 27.2 and 32 indicated “Strong Engagement”; scores between 22.4 and 27.1 were “Moderate Engagement”; and “Neutral” were sum scores between 17.6 and 22.3. Sum scores between 8 and 12.8 indicated “Strong Disengagement” and scores between 12.9 and 17.5 indicated “Moderate Disengagement.”

Figure 4.5

*Continuum of Desirable Practices Commitment*

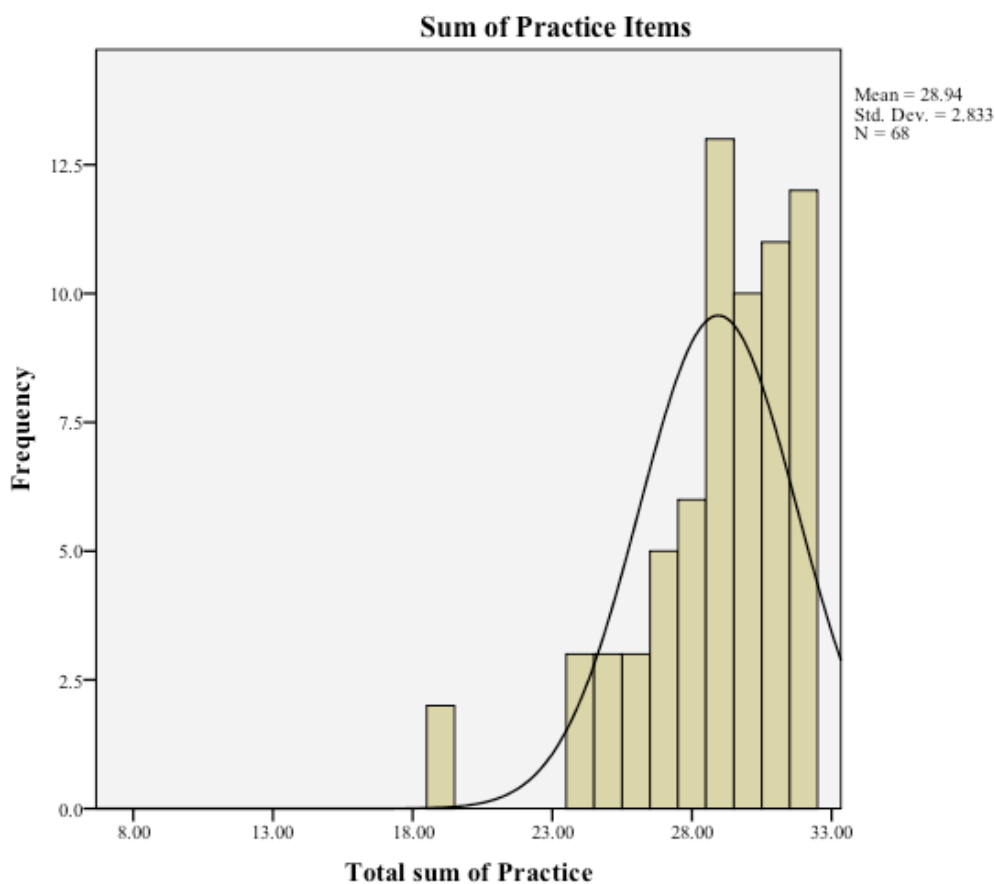


### *Overall Practice Among Teachers*

Results from the 3YO-Desirable survey were positively skewed, with a mean of 28.94 and standard deviation of 2.83. Results indicated that teachers frequently reported moderate engagement in desirable practices identified in the survey. The minimum score was 19 and the maximum score was 32 (See Figure 4.6). An item analysis follows, including response patterns and trends (see Table 4.5).

Figure 4.6

### *Overall Practice Among Teachers*



Participants overwhelmingly answered “sometimes” or “often” on all eight items on the 3YO-Desirable survey. Over 90 percent of participants “often” *reflect on and*



*improve their teaching performance* (item 28) and “often” *make teaching decisions based on classroom evidence* (item 29). Almost 90 percent of participants reported *using differentiated instruction to enhance student learning* “often” (item 36) and 79 percent reported “often” *making teaching decisions based on the results of pupil assessments* (item 32). Seventy-four percent of teachers “often” *understand the concepts, principals, and reasoning methods of the subject areas they teach* (item 34) and 71.2 percent “often” *understand educational plans and provide appropriate accommodations for students with special needs in their classroom* (item 31).

The majority of responses to item 35 (*modifying lessons for students from diverse racial/ethnic/cultural/linguistic backgrounds*) and item 37 (*integrating issues of social justice into my curriculum*) are more evenly distributed between “often” and “sometimes.” Collectively, over 87 percent of participants responded “often” (45.5%) and “sometimes” (42.4%) to item 35. Participants responded “often” (45.6%) and “sometimes” (39.7%) to item 37. With regard to items 35 and 37, it is important to note that over 12 percent report “rarely” or “never” *modify[ing] lessons for students from diverse racial/ethnic/cultural/linguistic backgrounds*, and 14.7 percent “rarely” or “never” *integrate issues of social justice into their curriculum*. Additionally, item 37 (*integrating issues of social justice*) (  $\bar{x}=3.23$ ,  $SD=0.88$ ) had the largest standard deviation of all the items on the survey.

A closer examination of items 31 and 35 showed differences in teachers’ reported practice in the area of accommodations and modifications. Over 27 percent “sometimes” and 71.2 percent “often” *understand educational plans and provid[e] appropriate accommodations for students with special needs* (item 31). While, cumulatively, 87.9

percent of the responses to item 35 (*modifying lessons for students from diverse racial/ethnic/cultural/linguistic backgrounds*) were positive (“often” or “sometimes”), the frequencies of responses were quite different. Over 42 percent of respondents “sometimes” and 45 percent “often” modify lessons for LDS. These findings suggest that teachers in this study reported providing accommodations and/or modifications more frequently for students with special education needs (71.2%) than they do for LDS (45.5%).

Table 4.5

*3YO – Desirable Practice Item Analysis*

Item		Response**			
		1 Never	2 Rarely	3 Some- times	4 Often
Item 28: reflecting on and improving my teaching performance.*	Frequency	0	1	5	62
	%	0.0	1.5	7.4	91.2
	Mean = 3.89; SD = 0.35				
Item 29: making decisions about teaching based on classroom evidence.*	Frequency	0	0	6	60
	%	0.0	0.0	9.1	90.9
	Mean = 3.90; SD = 0.29				
Item 31: understanding educational plans and providing appropriate accommodations for students with special needs in my classroom.*	Frequency	0	1	18	47
	%	0.0	1.5	27.3	71.2
	Mean = 3.69; SD = 0.49				
Item 32: making teaching decisions based on the results of pupil assessments.*	Frequency	1	1	12	53
	%	1.5	1.5	17.9	79.1
	Mean = 3.74; SD = 0.56				
Item 34: understanding the concepts, principals, and reasoning methods of	Frequency	1	0	16	50

the subject areas I teach.*	%	1.5	0.0	23.9	74.6
Mean = 3.72; SD = 0.55					
Item 35: modifying lessons for students from diverse racial/ethnic/cultural/linguistic backgrounds.*	Frequency	2	6	28	30
	%	3.0	9.1	42.4	45.5
Mean = 3.3; SD = 0.76					
Item 36: using differentiated instruction to enhance student learning.*	Frequency	0	2	5	61
	%	0.0	2.9	7.4	89.7
Mean = 3.87; SD = 0.42					
Item 37: integrating issues of social justice into my curriculum.	Frequency	5	5	27	31
	%	7.4	7.4	39.7	45.6
Mean = 3.23; SD = 0.88					

Note. \*indicates reversed-scoring; \*\* “Often” = 4, “Sometimes” = 3, “Rarely” = 2, and “Never” = 1

### *Desirable Practice Among Teachers by Group*

Data from the 3YO-Desirable Practice (3YO-Desirable) were disaggregated by group, including: type of degree, teacher education coursework in special education, and teacher education coursework in language (See Table 4.6). Participants with a graduate degree from Chapman College had similar mean scores on the 3YO-Desirable ( $\bar{x}$ =28.97, SD=2.87) to participants with an undergraduate degree ( $\bar{x}$ =28.92, SD=2.8). Participants who took special education coursework in addition to their elementary coursework had a slightly lower mean score on the 3YO-Desirable ( $\bar{x}$ =28.53, SD=3.18) than the group who took only elementary education coursework ( $\bar{x}$ =29.08, SD=2.7); therefore, both groups reported using desirable practices at about the same frequency. Participants who took some degree of language coursework ( $\bar{x}$ =28.44, SD=3.39) had slightly lower mean scores or reported using general practices with less frequency than participants who did not take language coursework ( $\bar{x}$ =29.09, SD=2.66). None of the groups were

statistically significantly different from each other. Collectively, these findings suggest that participants' reported moderate engagement in desirable practices at about the same frequency, regardless of degree, teacher education coursework in special education or teacher education coursework in language. No statistically significant differences were found.

Table 4.6

*Desirable Practice Among Teachers by Group*

		N	$\bar{x}$ (SD)	t	p
	Total	69	28.94 (2.8)		
Type of Degree	Undergraduate	36	28.92 (2.8)	.075	.940
	Graduate	33	28.97 (2.87)		
TE coursework: elementary/special education	Elementary Coursework ONLY	52	29.08 (2.7)	-.689	.493
	Elementary and Special Education Coursework	17	28.53 (3.18)		
TE coursework: language	NO Language Coursework	53	29.09 (2.66)	-.811	.420
	SOME degree of Language Coursework	16	28.44 (3.39)		

*Summary*

The close examination of items on the three surveys provided a more complete understanding of the general mean scores reported. While scores from the LATS reveal moderate positive language attitudes across a normal distribution, participants reported uncertainty on some questions. Results from the 3YO-SJ suggest that participants have, on average, moderate engagement in practices for social justice. The 3YO-Desirable

survey showed moderate engagement in desirable practices.

Of the three surveys, the LATS was the only one that reported group differences. While there were no significant differences found between participants who took special education coursework and those who did not, as well as the type of degree participants received, there were differences found between participants who took language coursework and those who did not. Participants who took some degree of language coursework at Chapman College had stronger positive attitudes toward language and linguistic diversity. In order to confirm the reliability of the surveys used in the study and determine whether or not the surveys could be reduced into components, the next section describes the principal component analysis used with results from the participants.

Research Question 1: What are the principal components of the three surveys administered to elementary teachers?

To verify that the items on the three surveys used in this study were internally consistent, reliability analyses were conducted. Although previous studies tested the reliability and validity of the LATS (Byrnes & Kiger, 1994; Byrnes, Kiger, & Manning, 1996; Byrnes, Kiger, & Manning, 1997), the instrument was subjected to a principal components analysis to determine construct validity. Further, the 3YO-Social Justice and 3YO-Desirable surveys were part of a larger Three-Year-Out study created at Chapman College with the Teacher Education faculty, in conjunction with faculty, administrators and graduate students with expertise in assessment and measurement. According to Ludlow, et al. (2008), “the surveys had both sound psychometric properties and strong validity for making inferences about the teacher preparation program” (p. 322).

#### *Language Attitudes of Teachers Scale*

Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to assess the structure of variables

underlying language attitudes and determine the minimum number of components that account for the items in the data. This analysis provided evidence of the construct validity of the LATS as well as differences between PCA conducted with this study and in previous studies. Reliability was further measured by assessing Cronbach's Alpha estimates.

In particular, PCA is concerned with the common variance and examination of the correlation between items and components. The resulting correlations between items are called loadings. There can be a pattern inferred from these loadings onto components; the higher the loading, the greater the contribution of an item to a component. Loadings range from -1.0 to 1.0, with ideal correlation at (+/- 1.0) with a single component and loadings of 0.0 on other components. Realistically, a large loading on one component with low or zero loadings on other components is ideal (Crocker & Algina, 2006).

The LATS is based on 13 items, therefore PCA could determine if items correlate more highly with one component or with another component. Byrnes and Kiger (1994), for example found three components of the LATS in their study of 191 teachers from Arizona, Utah, and Virginia: language tolerance, LEP support, and language politics. Items that asked questions about supporting spending for LDS would correlate most highly with the LEP support component, whereas a question about the official language of the United States correlated most highly with the language politics component.

Participants' responses from the LATS were entered into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and items 2, 4, and 9 were reverse coded (as suggested by Byrnes & Kiger, 1994). Table 4.7 includes the 13 items from the LATS and their respective component loadings. As the loading increases, the correlation between item

and component also increases. The loading value is analogous to Pearson's  $r$  and when squared, the loadings are the percent of variance in the indicator variable that is explained by that factor (Garson, 2008). Ideally, a loading of 0.7 or higher is desired, since this level corresponds to about half of the variance in the indicator being explained by the factor (Garson, 2008). However, only five of the 13 items on the LATS had loadings of 0.7 or higher (items 7, 9, 1, 10, 13).

Principal component analysis with direct oblimin rotation was used to determine if the derived components were correlated. The analysis was run unfixed, meaning SPSS could identify an unlimited number of components. Four factors had Eigenvalues over 1.0. The first component was comprised of item 7 (.924), item 11 (.680), item 2 (.633), item 8 (.538), and item 12 (.522). The second component was comprised of item 9 (.807) and question 3 (.438). The third component was comprised of item 1 (.813), item 4 (.570), and item 6 (.521). The fourth component was comprised of item 10 (.860), item 13 (.793), and item 5 (.413). Table 4.7 shows the Eigenvalues and total cumulative variance explained using a principal component analysis. Examining the initial Eigenvalues for the four predicted components, the PCA accounted for 64.41% of the variance in language attitude.

Since the loadings from the unfixed solution for over half the items were less 0.7, further inquiry was necessary. Therefore, I conducted a reliability analysis, deriving a Cronbach's Alpha statistic for each extracted component (see Table 4.8). Component 1 had the strongest internal consistency (.757) compared to the other components (Component 2=.380, component 3=.537; and component 4=.636). This provided evidence to suggest weak reliability within three of the four components.

Table 4.7

*Language Attitudes of Teachers Scale Items and Corresponding Loadings Obtained from Initial Principal Component Analysis*

LATS Item	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3	Component 4
7. Local and state governments should require that all government business (including voting) be conducted only in English.	.924			
11. At school, the learning of the English language by non- or limited-English-proficient children should take precedence over learning subject matter.	.680			
2. I would support the government spending additional money to provide better programs for linguistic-minority students in public schools.	.633			
8. Having a non- or limited-English-proficient student in the classroom is detrimental to the learning of the other students.	.538			
12. English should be the official language of the United States.	.522			
9. Regular-classroom teachers should be required to receive pre-service or in-service training to be prepared to meet the needs of linguistic minorities.		.807		
3. Parents of non- or limited-English-proficient students should be counseled to speak English with their children whenever possible.		.438		
1. To be considered American, one should speak English.			.813	
4. It is important that people in the US learn a language in addition to English.			.570	
6. The rapid learning of English should be a priority for non-English-proficient or limited-			.521	



English-proficient students even if it means they lose the ability to speak their native language.				
10. Most non- and limited-English-proficient children are not motivated to learn English.				.860
13. Non- and limited-English-proficient students often use unjustified claims of discrimination as an excuse, for not doing well in school.				.793
5. It is unreasonable to expect a regular classroom teacher to teach a child who does not speak English.				.413
Eigenvalue	4.32	1.36	1.25	1.06
Cumulative percent of variance explained	33.22	43.64	53.24	61.41

Table 4.8

*LATS: Four-factor Reliability Analysis*

	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3	Component 4
Cronbach's Alpha	.757	.380	.537	.636
N of items	5	2	3	3

The initial PCA predicted four components and measures of reliability were not acceptable, because Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for all four factors were not .70 or higher (Nunnally, 1978). Therefore, a second PCA was conducted extracting a fixed number (3) of components. (It is important to note that Byrnes and Kiger's (1994) study identified three components). Table 4.9 shows the total variance explained through a three-factor PCA. The Eigenvalues for the three predicted components in the PCA accounted for 53.24% of the variance. Table 4.9 shows the results from the three-factor

PCA, including the 13 items and their respective loadings. Four of the 13 items on this PCA have loadings of 0.7 or higher, which is less than the original PCA.

Three predicted components were generated. The first component was comprised of item 2 (.743), item 7 (.717), item 8 (.699), item 10 (.694), item 11 (.601), item 13 (.561), and item 5 (.556). The second component was comprised of item 9 (.732) and item 12 (-.564). The third component was comprised of item 1 (.785), item 4 (.665), item 6 (.623), and item 3 (.483).

Since the loadings for nine items were less 0.7, further inquiry was necessary. A second reliability analysis was therefore conducted, again using Cronbach's Alpha for the items that comprised each extracted component (see Table 4.10). Component 1 had the strongest reliability (.790) compared to the other components (component 2=.168, component 3=.595). Together, this provided evidence to suggest weak overall reliability.

Table 4.9

*Language Attitudes of Teachers Scale Items and Corresponding Loadings Obtained from Three-Factor Principal Component Analysis*

LATS Item	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3
2. I would support the government spending additional money to provide better programs for linguistic-minority students in public schools.	.743		
7. Local and state governments should require that all government business (including voting) be conducted only in English.	.717		
8. Having a non- or limited-English-proficient student in the classroom is detrimental to the learning of the other students.	.699		
10. Most non- and limited-English-proficient children are not motivated to learn English.	.694		
11. At school, the learning of the English language by non- or limited-English-proficient children should take precedence over learning	.601		

subject matter.			
13. Non- and limited-English-proficient students often use unjustified claims of discrimination as an excuse, for not doing well in school.	.561		
5. It is unreasonable to expect a regular classroom teacher to teach a child who does not speak English.	.556		
9. Regular-classroom teachers should be required to receive pre-service or in-service training to be prepared to meet the needs of linguistic minorities.		.732	
12. English should be the official language of the United States.		-.564	
1. To be considered American, one should speak English.			.785
4. It is important that people in the US learn a language in addition to English.			.668
6. The rapid learning of English should be a priority for non-English-proficient or limited-English-proficient students even if it means they lose the ability to speak their native language.			.623
3. Parents of non- or limited-English-proficient students should be counseled to speak English with their children whenever possible.			.483
Eigenvalue	4.32	1.35	1.25
Cumulative percent of variance explained	33.22	43.64	53.24

Table 4.10

*LATS: Three-factor Reliability Analysis*

	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3
Cronbach's Alpha	.790	.168	.595
N of items	7	2	4

A third PCA was conducted extracting a fixed number (2) of components. Table

4.11 shows the total variance explained through the two-factor PCA. The Eigenvalues for the two predicted components in the PCA accounted for 43.64% of the variance. Table 4.11 shows the results from the two-factor PCA, including the 13 items and their respective loadings. Four of the 13 items on this PCA have loadings of 0.7 or higher, which is less than the original PCA and the same as the three-factor PCA.

Two predicted components were generated. The first component was comprised of item 5 (.741), item 9 (.737), item 8 (.713), item 2 (.582), item 3 (.554), item 11 (.528), item 10 (.513), item 4 (.493), item 13 (.471), and item 6 (.368). The second component was comprised of item 12 (-.780), item 1 (-.610), and item 7 (-.529). Since the loadings for nine items were less 0.7, further inquiry was necessary. Therefore, I conducted a reliability analysis, using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient (see Table 4.12). The reliability of Component 1 (.788) and component 2 (.599) varied. This provided evidence to suggest moderate reliability.

Table 4.11

*Language Attitudes of Teachers Scale Items and Corresponding Loadings Obtained from Two-Factor Principal Component Analysis*

LATS Item	Component 1	Component 2
5. It is unreasonable to expect a regular classroom teacher to teach a child who does not speak English.	.741	
9. Regular-classroom teachers should be required to receive pre-service or in-service training to be prepared to meet the needs of linguistic minorities.	.737	
8. Having a non- or limited-English-proficient student in the classroom is detrimental to the learning of the other students.	.713	
2. I would support the government spending additional money to provide better programs for linguistic-minority students in public schools.	.582	
3. Parents of non- or limited-English-proficient students should be counseled to speak English with their children whenever possible.	.554	
11. At school, the learning of the English language by non- or limited-English-proficient children should take precedence over learning subject matter.	.528	
10. Most non- and limited-English-proficient children are not motivated to learn English.	.513	
4. It is important that people in the US learn a language in addition to English.	.493	
13. Non- and limited-English-proficient students often use unjustified claims of discrimination as an excuse, for not doing well in school.	.471	
6. The rapid learning of English should be a priority for non-English-proficient or limited-English-proficient students even if it means they lose the ability to speak their native language.	.368	
12. English should be the official language of the United States.		-.780
1. To be considered American, one should speak English.		-.610
7. Local and state governments should require that all government business (including voting) be conducted only in English.		-.529
Eigenvalue	4.32	1.36
Cumulative percent of variance explained	32.22	43.64

Table 4.12

*LATS: Two-factor Reliability Analysis*

	Component 1	Component 2
Cronbach's Alpha	.788	.599
N of items	10	3

Taking this iterative perspective resulted in the conclusion that the LATS functioned best as a single attitude construct ( $\alpha = .818$ ). Unlike previous research (e.g. Byrnes & Kiger, 1994), which identified three components, this sample's results provided evidence that the entire survey functioned as a single component measuring teachers' language attitudes (see Table 4.13).

Table 4.13

*Language Attitudes of Teachers Scale Items and Corresponding Loadings Obtained from One-Factor Principal Component Analysis*

LATS Item	Component 1
7. Local and state governments should require that all government business (including voting) be conducted only in English.	.709
2. I would support the government spending additional money to provide better programs for linguistic-minority students in public schools.	.703
5. It is unreasonable to expect a regular classroom teacher to teach a child who does not speak English.	.662
11. At school, the learning of the English language by non- or limited-English-proficient children should take precedence over learning subject matter.	.651
13. Non- and limited-English-proficient students often use unjustified claims of discrimination as an excuse, for not doing well in school.	.595
8. Having a non- or limited-English-proficient student in the classroom is detrimental to the learning of the other students.	.594

6. The rapid learning of English should be a priority for non-English-proficient or limited-English-proficient students even if it means they lose the ability to speak their native language.	.560
3. Parents of non- or limited-English-proficient students should be counseled to speak English with their children whenever possible.	.554
12. English should be the official language of the United States.	.529
10. Most non- and limited-English-proficient children are not motivated to learn English.	.526
4. It is important that people in the US learn a language in addition to English.	.512
9. Regular-classroom teachers should be required to receive pre-service or in-service training to be prepared to meet the needs of linguistic minorities.	.403
1. To be considered American, one should speak English.	.391
Alpha reliability coefficient for entire survey	.818

### *Three-Year-Out: Practice for Social Justice*

Like the LATS, participants' responses from the Three-Year-Out: Practice for Social Justice (3YO-SJ) Survey, were entered into SPSS. Table 4.14 includes the eight items from the 3YO-SJ and their respective component loadings, for an initial analysis without a fixed number of components. Four of the eight items on the 3YO-SJ had loadings of 0.7 or higher (items 39, 43, 42, 44).

Using PCA with direct oblimin rotation, three factors had Eigenvalues over 1.0. The first component was comprised of item 39 (.872), item 48 (.692), and item 41 (.545). The second component was comprised of item 43 (.757) and question 42 (.719). The third component was comprised of item 44 (.713), item 40 (-.596), and item 45 (-.588). Table 4.14 shows the Eigenvalues and total cumulative variance explained using a principal component analysis. Examining the initial Eigenvalues for the three predicted components, the PCA accounted for 58.81% of the variance.

Since the loadings for half the items were less 0.7, further inquiry was necessary. Therefore, I conducted a reliability analysis, using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient (see Table 4.15). Component 1 had the strongest reliability (.531) compared to the other components (Component 2=.379; component 3=.283). This provided evidence to suggest weak reliability.

Table 4.14

*Three-Year-Out – Practice for Social Justice Items and Corresponding Loadings  
Obtained from Initial Principal Component Analysis*

3YO-Social Justice Practice Item	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3
39. An important part of being a teacher is examining my attitudes and beliefs about race, class, gender, disabilities, and sexual orientation.	.872		
48. Although I appreciate diversity, it's <u>NOT</u> my job as a teacher to change society.	.692		
41. For the most part, covering multicultural topics is <u>NOT</u> relevant to the subjects I teach.	.545		
43. The most important goal for me in working with immigrant children and English language learners is to assimilate them into American society.		.757	
42. I incorporate diverse cultures and experiences into my classroom lessons and discussions.		.719	
44. It's reasonable for me to have lower classroom expectations for students who don't speak English as their first language.			.713
40. Issues related to racism and inequality are openly discussed in my classroom.			-.596
45. Part of my responsibility as a teacher is to challenge school arrangements that maintain societal inequities.			-.588
Eigenvalue	2.34	1.21	1.16
Cumulative percent of variance explained	29.26	44.35	58.81



Table 4.15

*Three-Year-Out – Practice for Social Justice Survey: Three-factor Reliability Analysis*

	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3
Cronbach's Alpha	.531	.379	.283
N of items	3	2	3

The initial PCA extracted three components. Since the loadings for four items were less 0.7, and due to the inability to interpret or name the predicted components, a second PCA was conducted extracting a fixed number (2) of components. Table 4.16 shows the total variance explained through the two-factor PCA. The Eigenvalues for the two predicted components in the PCA accounted for 44.35% of the variance. Table 4.16 shows the results from the two-factor PCA, including the eight items and their respective loadings.

Two predicted components were generated. The first component was comprised of item 39 (.684), item 48 (.636), item 41 (.563), item 43 (.561), item 42 (.525), and item 44 (.283). The second component was comprised of item 40 (-.628) and item 45 (.544). Since the loadings for all items were less 0.7, further inquiry was necessary. Therefore, I conducted a reliability analysis, using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient (see Table 4.17). The reliability of Component 1 (.545) and component 2 (.577) varied. This provided evidence to suggest weak reliability.

Table 4.16

*Three-Year-Out – Practice for Social Justice Items and Corresponding Loadings Obtained from Two-Factor Principal Component Analysis*

3YO-Social Justice Item	Component 1	Component 2
39. An important part of being a teacher is examining my attitudes and beliefs about race, class, gender, disabilities, and sexual orientation.	.684	
48. Although I appreciate diversity, it's <u>NOT</u> my job as a teacher to change society.	.636	
41. For the most part, covering multicultural topics is <u>NOT</u> relevant to the subjects I teach.	.563	
43. The most important goal for me in working with immigrant children and English language learners is to assimilate them into American society.	.561	
42. I incorporate diverse cultures and experiences into my classroom lessons and discussions.	.525	
44. It's reasonable for me to have lower classroom expectations for students who don't speak English as their first language.	.283	
40. Issues related to racism and inequality are openly discussed in my classroom.		-.628
45. Part of my responsibility as a teacher is to challenge school arrangements that maintain societal inequities.		.544
Eigenvalue	2.34	1.21
Cumulative percent of variance explained	29.26	44.35

Table 4.17

*Three-Year-Out – Practice for Social Justice Survey: Two-factor Reliability Analysis*

	Component 1	Component 2
Cronbach's Alpha	.545	.577
N of items	6	2

Therefore, a reliability analysis was conducted for the entire eight-item 3YO-SJ

survey (See Table 4.18). The alpha reliability coefficient for the 3YO-SJ scores for this sample was .626. This reliability coefficient, using all eight items, was stronger than coefficients generated with more than one component. The sample's results provided evidence that the entire survey functioned as a single component measuring teachers' reported use of social justice practices. However, the overall reliability was lower and less desirable.

Table 4.18

*Three-Year-Out – Practice for Social Justice Items and Corresponding Loadings Obtained from One-Factor Principal Component Analysis*

3YO-Social Justice Item	Component 1
40. Issues related to racism and inequality are openly discussed in my classroom.	.684
41. For the most part, covering multicultural topics is <u>NOT</u> relevant to the subjects I teach.	.636
45. Part of my responsibility as a teacher is to challenge school arrangements that maintain societal inequities.	.561
39. An important part of being a teacher is examining my attitudes and beliefs about race, class, gender, disabilities, and sexual orientation.	.558
42. I incorporate diverse cultures and experiences into my classroom lessons and discussions.	.557
48. Although I appreciate diversity, it's <u>NOT</u> my job as a teacher to change society.	.527
43. The most important goal for me in working with immigrant children and English language learners is to assimilate them into American society.	.417
44. It's reasonable for me to have lower classroom expectations for students who don't speak English as their first language.	.282

*Three-Year-Out: Desirable Practice*

Like the other two surveys, participants' responses from the Three-Year-Out: Desirable Practice (3YO-Desirable) survey were entered into SPSS. Table 4.19 includes

the eight items from the 3YO-Desirable and their respective component loadings, for an initial analysis without a fixed number of components. Five of the eight items on the 3YO-Desirable had loadings of 0.7 or higher (items 35, 31, 36, 29, 28).

Using PCA with direct oblimin rotation, two factors had Eigenvalues over one. The first component was comprised of item 35 (.774), item 31 (.768), item 36 (.701), item 37 (.699), and item 34 (.667). The second component was comprised of item 29 (.812), item 28 (.700), and item 32 (.592). Table 4.19 shows the Eigenvalues and total cumulative explained variance. Examining the initial Eigenvalues for the two predicted components, the PCA accounted for 44.35% of the variance.

Since the loadings for some the items were less than 0.7, further inquiry was necessary. Therefore, I conducted a reliability analysis, using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient (see Table 4.20). Component 1 had the strongest reliability (.743) compared to component 2 (.350). The first component suggest moderate reliability, while the second weak reliability, therefore, a PCA with a forced one-factor extraction was conducted.

Table 4.19

*Three-Year-Out – Desirable Practice Items and Corresponding Loadings Obtained from Initial Principal Component Analysis*

3YO-Desirable Practice Item	Component 1	Component 2
35. modifying lessons for students from diverse racial/ethnic/cultural/linguistic backgrounds.	.774	
31. understanding educational plans and providing appropriate accommodations for students with special needs in my classroom.	.768	
36. using differentiated instruction to enhance student learning.	.701	
37. integrating issues of social justice into my curriculum.	.699	

34. understanding the concepts, principles, and reasoning methods of the subject areas I teach.	.667	
29. making decisions about teaching based on classroom evidence.		.812
28. reflecting on and improving my teaching performance.		.700
32. making teaching decisions based on the results of pupil assessments.		.592
Eigenvalue	2.34	1.21
Cumulative percent of variance explained	29.26	44.35

Table 4.20

*Three-Year-Out – Practice for Social Justice Survey: Two-factor Reliability Analysis*

	Component 1	Component 2
Cronbach's Alpha	.743	.350
N of items	5	3

The alpha reliability coefficient for the 3YO-Desirable scores for this sample was .684 (see Table 4.21). This reliability coefficient, using all eight items, was stronger than coefficients generated with more than one component. This sample's results provided evidence that the entire survey functioned as a single component measuring teachers' reported use of desirable practices.

Table 4.21

*Three-Year-Out – Desirable Practice Items and Corresponding Loadings Obtained from One-Factor Principal Component Analysis*

3YO-Desirable Practice Item	Component 1
35. modifying lessons for students from diverse racial/ethnic/cultural/linguistic backgrounds.	.759
31. understanding educational plans and providing appropriate accommodations for students with special	.732

needs in my classroom.	
37. integrating issues of social justice into my curriculum.	.707
36. using differentiated instruction to enhance student learning.	.706
34. understanding the concepts, principles, and reasoning methods of the subject areas I teach.	.666
29. making decisions about teaching based on classroom evidence.	.263
32. making teaching decisions based on the results of pupil assessments.	.204
28. reflecting on and improving my teaching performance.	.090

### *Summary*

Results from the PCA conducted on the three surveys revealed that each instrument used in this study measured a separate, specific construct. The LATS measured teachers' language attitude, the 3YO-SJ captured teachers' reported use of social justice practices, and 3YO-Desirable measured teachers' reported use of desirable practices. All three instruments were determined reliable and, therefore, were used to determine whether relationships existed between and among the three constructs.

Research Question 2: What are the relationships between teachers' practices, language attitudes, and teacher education coursework?

### *Regression Analysis*

To understand the relationships between the variables, I explored the predictive value of the independent variables as defined below on teachers' practice for social justice and teachers' desirable practices. First, teachers' practice for social justice (3YO-SJ) served as the outcome variable. This variable was computed by taking the mean from the eight items on the 3YO-Social Justice survey. Second, teachers' desirable practices (3YO-Desirable) served as the other outcome variable. This variable was computed by

taking the mean of the eight items on the 3YO-Desirable.

This section presents the results of the regression models. For the multiple regression model the three predictor variables were entered: language attitude (LATS score), type of degree (under/graduate), teacher education language coursework (yes/no), and teacher education special education coursework (yes/no). Language attitude was entered first in order to determine the partial effect of language coursework; language coursework was entered last in order to determine the effects after controlling for language attitude. It was hypothesized that the variation found in teachers' desirable practices could be explained by coursework above and beyond language attitude. Before running the models, the individual influence of each variable was examined.

#### *Single Predictors*

Before creating the multiple regression models, the researcher examined the amount of variance explained of each predictor variable on 3YO-SJ and 3YO-Desirable. Language attitude, accounted for 5.2% of the variance in 3YO-SJ ( $R^2 = .052$ ,  $F = 3.7$ ,  $p = .059$ ) and accounted for 7.8% of variance in the 3YO-Desirable outcomes ( $R^2 = .078$ ,  $F = 5.6$ ,  $p = .021$ ). Since the single variables accounted for such small percentages of variance, it was necessary to use a multiple regression analysis.

#### *Multiple Regression*

Multiple regression techniques were used to examine the role of teacher education coursework and language attitude to predict teachers' practices for social justice. In addition, another series of regression models were built to look at the role of teacher education coursework and language attitude to predict desirable practices. The model-fitting process is displayed in Table 4.22 and Table 4.23.





Special Education				
<i>R squared</i>	.052	.066	.067	.071
<i>df</i>	67	66	64	62

\*  $p < .05$ ; ~  $p < .10$

*Outcome Variable: Desirable Practices*

Table 4.23 shows Model 1, the effect of language attitudes on desirable practices. The coefficient was negative and indicated a significance effect ( $p = .021$ ) of language attitude (The lower the mean score, the more positive the attitudes) on desirable practices. This explained 7.8% of the variation in desirable practices. Once the type of degree was added to the model, the effect of language attitude on practices for social justice remained significant, but the total model was insignificant; the explained variance was 8.1%. Models 3 and 4 tested the individual contributions of teacher education language coursework and teacher education coursework in special education, respectively; neither model had significant effects. Like the regression models, examining the role of teacher education coursework and language attitude to predict teachers' practices for social justice, interaction variables were tested and no differences were found. When combined with any of the other predictors, the effects of language attitude were eliminated. Thus, Model 1 proved to be the best-fitting model tested. The fact that the language attitude predictor made a significant contribution to teachers' reported use of desired practices was an important finding.

Table 4.23

*Regression Models Investigating the Role of Teacher Coursework and Language Attitudes on Teachers' Desirable Practices*

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Intercept	32.28	1.45	32.58	1.59	31.42	2.58	32.5	2.7
Language Attitude	-.119	.05*	-.124	.052*	-.071	.084	-.111	.089
Degree			-.315	.687	3.14	3.04	2.85	3.07
Teacher Education: Language					-1.31	.829	-5.81	3.61
Teacher Education: Special Education							-.456	.978
<i>R squared</i>	.078		.081		.142		.168	
<i>df</i>	66		65		63		61	

\*  $p < .05$

The regression solution for Model 1 was:

$\hat{Y}_{desirablepractice} = 32.28 + (-0.119)X_{languageattitude}$ , as shown in Table 4.24. This means that if the language attitude predictor variable had a value of 0, there would be a predicted desirable practice score of 32.28. This score falls in the “strong engagement” on the Continuum of Desirable Practice Commitment. However, it is not possible to have a predictor score of 0, because the LATS outcome was on a scale from 13-65, with a higher score indicating a stronger engagement in desirable practice. However, it made more sense to discuss how the predictor variable accounted for outcome in the model. These values indicated that with every 1-point increase in language attitude (as measured by the

LATS) there was almost a 0.119<sup>9</sup> point decrease in desirable practices (as measured by the 3YO-Desirable). For example, if a participant scored a 30.0 on language attitude, their predicted score for desirable practice was:  $35.85 = 32.28 + (0.119 \times 30.0)$ . According to this model, participants with strong positive language attitudes (scores 13-23.4) also had stronger engagement in desirable practices.

Results from the three surveys showed one statistically significant positive relationship between teachers' language attitudes and teachers' desirable practices. There were significant correlations between both 3YO-SJ and 3YO-Desirable, indicating some overlap in the way in which participants responded to the surveys. There were also significant correlations found between language attitudes and teacher education language coursework. Regression models confirmed that language attitudes were influential in predicting a significant portion of teachers' reported use of desirable practices.

Research Question 3: How do the results from Research Question 2 inform sample selection for Research Question 4?

### *Residual Analysis*

A residual analysis was conducted to select participants for Research Question 4.

Using the regression model identified above,  $\hat{Y}_{desirablepractice} = 32.28 + (-0.119)X_{languageattitude}$  three participants with residuals (observed minus predicted score) in line with the model were randomly selected. Then, six participants whose residuals fell beyond +/- one standard deviation around the regression line were selected. Based on the participants' raw scores, a standard score was calculated based on the distribution of the sample; this

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<sup>9</sup> It is important to remind readers that the LATS' scale is negative, while the 3YO-SJ and 3YO-Practice are positive. The lower score on the LATS, the stronger the positive attitudes a teacher has about language. However, the higher the score on the 3YO-SJ and 3YO-Practice, the stronger the engagement practices. Therefore, the absolute values of the LATS scores are used in the regression model.

allowed for the standardization of the raw scores. Selection included the identification of sample participants who had varied scores along the Continuum of Language Commitment and the Continuum of Desirable Practice Commitment (see Table 4.24). The three participants in line with the model had “moderate positive” language attitudes and “strong engagement” to desirable practices. The remaining six participants reported varied scores along both continua.

Table 4.24

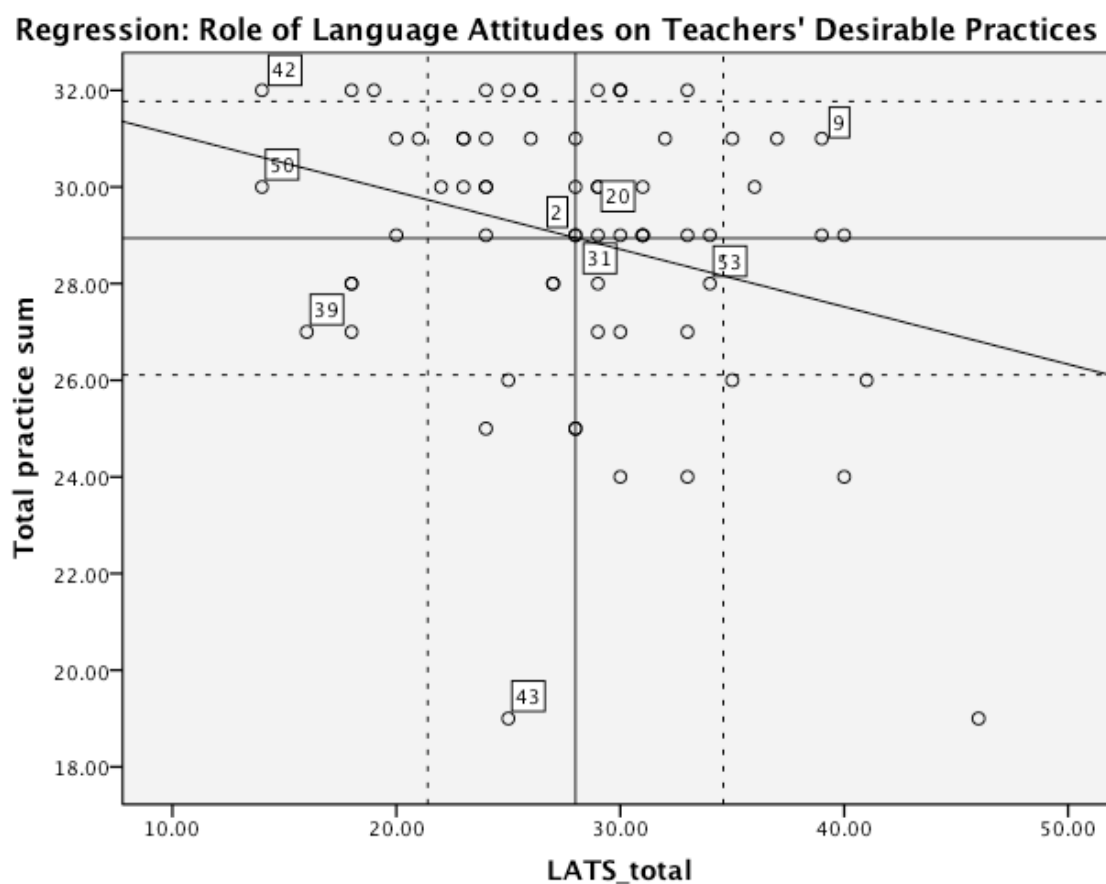
*Selected Interview Participants' Profiles*

Participants		Language Attitude			Desirable Practice		
		Raw Score	Standard Score	Continuum	Raw Score	Standard Score	Continuum
Participants in line with the model	Megan (#31)	28.00	0.00	Moderate Positive	29.00	0.02	Strong Engagement
	Marie (#2)	28.00	0.00	Moderate Positive	29.00	0.02	Strong Engagement
	Leigh (#20)	29.00	0.15	Moderate Positive	29.00	0.02	Strong Engagement
Participants +/- 1 SD	Rachel (#50)	14.00	-2.12	Strong Positive	30.00	0.37	Strong Engagement
	Rita (#42)	14.00	-2.12	Strong Positive	32.00	1.08	Strong Engagement
	Josephine (#39)	16.00	-1.82	Strong Positive	27.00	-0.69	Moderate Engagement
	Ann (#43)	25.00	-0.45	Moderate Positive	19.00	-3.51	Neutral
	Lauren (#9)	39.00	1.67	Neutral	31.00	0.73	Strong Engagement
	Troy (#53)	34.00	0.91	Neutral	28.00	-0.33	Strong Engagement
Sample Mean		28.00 (6.60)		Moderate Positive	28.94 (2.83)		Strong Engagement

The regression of participants' language attitudes on desirable practices is plotted (see Table 4.26). Sixteen participants whose scores were +/- 1 SD around the regression

line were identified. Of the 16 identified, nine agreed to participate in the study. For example, the participant (unidentified by a number) with a LATS score of almost + 3 SD and Desirable Practice score of almost - 4 SD was asked to participate, but declined. An attempt was made to identify at least one participant in each of the four quadrants. The final nine selected participants are identified in Figure 4.7 using boxes with their corresponding identification number.

Figure 4.7



### *Summary*

This chapter reported the results of the quantitative data generated in this study, comprised of the first three research questions. This included the principal component analyses on the LATS, 3YO-SJ, and 3YO-Desirable surveys, which determined that each

survey measured a single construct. Then, the relationships between teachers' practices and teacher attitudes after controlling for teacher education coursework were measured. Language attitudes were found to predict teachers' desirable practices. Finally, using the created regression model, a residual analysis was conducted and informed the selection of nine participants to answer the final research question. Chapter 5 will report on the results of research question 4, which qualitatively measured teachers' practices with respect to LDS. Then, chapter 6 provides an interpretation of the entire corpus of data.

## CHAPTER FIVE: QUALITATIVE RESULTS

Research Question 4: What are the decision-making practices of a representative sample of practicing elementary teachers who educate LDS?

### *Representative Sample of Participants*

Using a residual analysis, Research Question 3 identified nine participants to participate in answering Research Question 4. The three, randomly selected participants with residuals in-line with the model were Megan, Marie, and Leigh. The six selected participants whose residuals fell beyond +/- one standard deviation around the regression line were: Rachel, Rita, Josephine, Ann, Lauren, and Troy. This section describes each of the nine participants, including their school context, professional role, personal demographics, and Chapman College educational experiences. In addition, their scores along the Continuum of Language Commitment and the Continuum of Desirable Practice Commitment are reported as well as their Reflective Judgment scores<sup>10</sup> (see Table 5.1 *Interview Participants' Descriptive Information*).

#### *Rachel*

Rachel is a White female, two-way bilingual<sup>11</sup> (Spanish/English) pre-kindergarten teacher in an urban district in the northeast. Ninety-percent of the students in Rachel's preK-8 school are Hispanic and over 79 percent are considered low-income. Within this Title I<sup>12</sup> school, 34.5 percent of students' first language is English and 40.6 percent are considered LEP. About 10 percent of students receive special education services. The

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<sup>10</sup> See Appendix H.

<sup>11</sup> Bilingual education is defined as education focused on developing proficiency in two languages, by receiving instruction in English and another language.

<sup>12</sup> Title One Schools receive additional funding from the U.S. Department of Education to meet the needs of students at-risk and with low-incomes.

school scored “moderate” on the most recent state performance ratings in English Language Arts (ELA) and mathematics<sup>13</sup>.

Rachel completed her elementary education undergraduate degree including language coursework at Chapman College and went on to complete a master’s degree in comparative and international education at an area university. With six years of experience, Rachel holds a professional license and certifications in the following areas: Early Childhood: Teachers of Students with and without Disabilities, Elementary Education, and English language learners. Her score on the LATS (SS=-2.12) placed her in the “strong positive” category along the Language Diversity Commitment Continuum and her score on the 3YO: Desirable (SS=0.37) identified her as having “strong engagement” along the Desirable Practice Commitment Continuum.

Rachel scored 6.5 on the Reflective Judgment Scale, within the Reflective Stage. The rater reported that she displayed complex thinking and reasoning and “explicates the various sides of the issue and considers multiple perspectives and multiple contexts.” Further, it was noted that Rachel considers the “whole” child when examining the dilemma and while “her responses certainly derive from experience in this area, her reasoning is multidimensional.”

### *Rita*

Rita is an American-Indian female who teaches in a sixth grade, sheltered-English immersion<sup>14</sup> (SEI) self-contained classroom in a suburban district, outside of a Northeastern city. The majority of students in Rita’s school are White (84.3%), with a smaller Hispanic population (11.3%). Her school, grades 5-7, qualifies as a Title I school.

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<sup>13</sup> State-issued performance ratings are based on federal NCLB standards.

<sup>14</sup> In Sheltered English Immersion classrooms, teachers work specifically to make academic instruction in English comprehensible to LDS.



Over 85 percent of students' first language is English, 2.2 percent of students are considered LEP, 16.3 percent receive special education services, and 27.8 percent are considered low-income. The school scored "high" on the most recent state performance ratings in ELA and mathematics.

After completing her undergraduate degree in paralegal studies from an area university, Rita completed her graduate degree including language coursework at Chapman College, with a focus on serving urban students. With six years of public school education, as a former ELL director and now classroom teacher, she holds state certification in Elementary Education and English language learners. Like Rachel, Rita's score on the LATS (SS=-2.12) placed her in the "strong positive" category along the Language Diversity Commitment Continuum and her score on the 3YO: Desirable (SS=1.08) identified her as having "strong engagement" along the Desirable Practice Commitment Continuum.

Rita scored 6.0 on the Reflective Judgment Scale, therefore, her scores are indicative of someone in the Reflective Stage. The rater reported that Rita took a stand examining the dilemma and displayed complex thoughts. Compared the rest of the subsample, she was the participant who offered the most variables. The rater noted, "[Rita] addresses uncertainty, but is comfortable with it. Even without definitive data, she poses useful solutions that consider the whole child. She is also open-minded in that she suggests co-teaching, collaboration, RTI, etc."

Table 5.1  
*Interview Participants' Descriptive Information*

Participants	School Context*		Chapman Teacher Education Background				Professional Role			Demographics	
	School Setting**	Grade level(s)	Language coursework	Special Education coursework	Undergraduate degree	Graduate degree	Years experience	License type***	Grade / Role	Gender	Race
Rachel	U	preK-8	X		X		6	P	preK, 2-Way	F	White
Rita	S	preK-12	X			X	6	P	6 <sup>th</sup> , SEI self-contained	F	American Indian
Josephine	U	preK-8	X		X	X	3	I	5 <sup>th</sup> – 6 <sup>th</sup> , SEI	F	White
Megan	S	preK-5	X		X	X	4	I	5 <sup>th</sup>	F	White
Ann	U	preK-5	X		X	X	4	P	1 <sup>st</sup>	F	Hispanic
Lauren	R	preK-4			X		4	P	2 <sup>nd</sup>	F	White
Troy	U	preK-8		X	X	X	5	P	6 <sup>th</sup>	M	Asian
Leigh	S	preK-5			X		4	P	4 <sup>th</sup>	F	White
Marie	S	preK-2			X		4	I	1 <sup>st</sup>	F	White

Note. \* all participants were teachers in public schools; \*\* U=urban, S=suburban, R=rural; \*\*\* I=Initial license, P=Professional license

### *Josephine*

Josephine is a White female who is a lead SEI teacher for fifth and sixth graders. After two years working as an assistant teacher, she is now the lead teacher at a preK-8 school in an urban, northeastern district. Josephine's school reports the following race categories: 35.5% African American, 20.1% Asian, 11.6% Hispanic, 1.4% Native American, and 26.4% White. About 55 percent of students' first language is English and 15.7 percent of students are considered LEP. Almost half (47.9%) of the schools' students are considered low-income, 20.9 percent receive special education services, and the school qualifies for Title I services. The school scored "moderate" and "low" on the most recent state performance ratings in ELA and mathematics, respectively.

The year after finishing her undergraduate degree in theology and history at Chapman College, Josephine completed her graduate degree in secondary history. While there, she took language coursework. With three years of experience, Josephine holds state certification in English language learners. Josephine's score on the LATS (SS=-1.82) placed her in the "strong positive" category along the Language Diversity Commitment Continuum and her score on the 3YO: Desirable (SS=-0.69) identified her as having "moderate engagement" along the Desirable Practice Commitment Continuum.

Josephine scored 3.0 on the Reflective Judgment Scale, in the Pre-Reflective Stage. While she sometimes thinks complexly and begins to move toward a stance about the dilemma, the rater explained, "in the end, she had no opinion or stance." Throughout the dilemma Josephine displays difficulty dealing with ambiguity and frequently wants to revisit the questions. According to the rater, "this suggests that for her there is a right

answer; she just has to find it.” While Josephine does consider parents and families, she ignores possible assessments.

### *Megan*

Megan, a White female, teaches fifth grade in a K-5 school, in a suburban district outside of a northeastern city. Like Rita, the majority of students in Megan’s school are White (85.1%), with smaller African American (4.9%), Asian (3.9%), and Hispanic (3.9%) populations. Ninety-three percent of students’ first language is English and 3.1% are considered LEP. About 12% of students are low-income and 11.6% receive special education services. Megan’s school is a non-Title I school. In ELA and mathematics, the school scored “high” on the most recent state performance ratings.

Like Josephine, Megan consecutively completed her undergraduate (elementary education) and graduate (curriculum and instruction) degrees from Chapman College. There, she completed language coursework. Megan reports having four years of experience and holds state certification in Elementary Education. Megan’s scores on the LATS and 3YO: Desirable were in-line with the regression model identified for participant selection. This means that Megan’s scores were typical of participants that fit the model. Her LATS (SS=-1.82) score placed her in the “moderate positive” category along the Language Diversity Commitment Continuum and her score on the 3YO: Desirable (SS=0.02) identified her as having “strong engagement” along the Desirable Practice Commitment Continuum.

Megan scored 2.5 on the Reflective Judgment Scale, in the Pre-Reflective Stage. Based on results from the dilemma, the rater reported “[Megan] defers to experts and her personal experience, not assuming much responsibility for helping this child.” Further, it

was noted that “[Megan] does not think complexly, nor is she open-minded.” Based on this one dilemma it was determined that Megan’s judgment was pre-reflective.

### *Ann*

Ann is a Hispanic female who teaches first grade in a preK-5 school, in an urban, eastern district. She teaches in a school with predominately African American (84%) students, with smaller Hispanic (7%), Asian (3.5%), and White (2.8%) populations. Almost seventy-nine percent of the school’s students are low-income and the school receives Title I funding. In addition, 17.7% of students receive special education services and 9.8% receive “ESL only” instruction.<sup>15</sup> The school reported making adequate yearly progress (AYP) on the most recent federal ratings.

Similar to Josephine and Megan, Ann completed language coursework and consecutive degrees at Chapman College. Her undergraduate degree was in elementary education and her graduate degree in developmental and educational psychology. Ann has four years of experience and holds state certification in Elementary Education. Ann’s score on the LATS (SS=-0.45) placed her in the “moderate positive” category along the Language Diversity Commitment Continuum and her score on the 3YO: Desirable (SS=-3.51) identified her as being “neutral” along the Desirable Practice Commitment Continuum.

Ann scored 5.5 on the Reflective Judgment Scale, therefore, her scores are indicative of someone in the Quasi-Reflective Stage. While Ann defers to experts and her personal experience throughout the dilemma, she ultimately takes a stance based on gathering and analyzing data. She was the only participant to consider whether or not the

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<sup>15</sup> “ESL only” is determined by the district and means that students receive only pull-out ESL instruction. This is the only service LDS receive, as SEI classrooms and bilingual classrooms are not available in this school.

LDS was struggling due to language acquisition or if the student had a learning disability. Like Rachel, Ann considers a variety of variables to address the needs of the student. The rater noted that Ann was “acutely honest about the realities of school, as she discusses the importance of teacher advocacy and overall lack of school-wide advocacy.”

### *Lauren*

Lauren is a White female who teaches second grade in a rural, northeastern district. Like Rita and Megan, Lauren’s school is predominately White (87.3%), with 5.2 percent Hispanic, 2.4 percent African American, and 2.4 percent Asian. About 19 percent of the students receive special education services and 15.2 percent are considered low-income. Over 97 percent of students’ first language is English and less than a percent (0.6%) are considered LEP. Lauren’s school is a Title I school and scored “high” in ELA and mathematics on the most recent state performance ratings.

Like Rachel, Lauren completed her undergraduate degree at Chapman College and went on to complete her graduate degree in Elementary Education at an area university. She did not complete language coursework while at Chapman College. Lauren has state certification in Elementary Education and four years of experience. Lauren’s score on the LATS (SS=1.67) was in the “neutral” category along the Language Diversity Commitment Continuum and her score on the 3YO: Desirable (SS=-0.73) identified her as having “strong engagement” along the Desirable Practice Commitment Continuum.

Lauren scored 4.5 on the Reflective Judgment Scale, within the Quasi-Reflective Stage. Her response to the dilemma vacillated from pre-reflective to reflective. According to the rater, Lauren “is beginning to recognize the uncertainty and ambiguity of the issue

and to identify the complexity of the variables that impact the dilemma. However, she does not identify a stance and therefore does not move into [the Reflective Stage].”

### *Marie*

As a first grade teacher in a suburban district, outside of a northeastern city, Marie identifies herself as a White female. Her school is a non-Title I school with grades kindergarten through second. Students in Marie’s school are two-thirds White (66.7%), 27.5 percent Asian, 3.7 percent multi-race/non-Hispanic, and 1.6 percent Hispanic. Seventy-three percent of students’ first language is English and 3.4 percent are considered LEP. Less than six percent of students are considered low-income and 7.4 percent of students receive special education services. Marie’s school scored “very high” in ELA and mathematics on the most recent state performance ratings.

Similar to Rachel and Lauren, Marie completed her undergraduate degree in elementary education at Chapman College and graduate degree elsewhere. Marie is scheduled to complete her graduate degree in 2012. And, like Lauren, Marie did not take language coursework during her tenure at Chapman. With four years of experience, Marie has state certification in Elementary Education. Like Megan, Marie’s scores on the LATS and 3YO: Desirable were in-line with the regression model identified for participant selection. Her score on the LATS (SS=0.00) placed her in the “moderate positive” category along the Language Diversity Commitment Continuum and her score on the 3YO: Desirable (SS=0.02) identified her as having “strong engagement” along the Desirable Practice Commitment Continuum.

Marie scored 3.0 on the Reflective Judgment Scale, in the Pre-Reflective Stage. While Marie offered different ways to address the student, she did not consider the

complexity inherent in the dilemma. According to the rater, Marie did not “consider uncertainty in any thorough or deep way.” Further, she generates her own solutions, but they are not based on real evidence. In all, it was determined by the rater that “her thinking [was] not very deliberate.”

### *Troy*

Troy, an Asian male, teaches sixth grade math in an urban district in the northeast. Troy’s K-8 school receives Title I funding and 57.9 percent of students are considered low-income. His school reports the following race categories: 36.5% African American, 35.5% Hispanic, 25.6% White, 1.0% Asian, and 0.2% Native American. Seventy-two percent of students’ first language is English and 6.4 percent are considered LEP. Almost 19 percent (18.7%) of the students receive special education services. Troy’s school scored “high” in ELA and “moderate” in mathematics on the most recent state performance ratings.

Like three other participants (Josephine, Megan, Ann), Troy completed consecutive degrees at Chapman College. His undergraduate degree is in elementary education and graduate degree is in moderate specials needs. While he did not take any language coursework, he was the only one of the selected participants to complete special education coursework. Troy has five years of experience and the following state certifications: Elementary Education, English language learners, Teacher of Students with Moderate Disabilities, and Middle School Math. Troy’s score on the LATS (SS=0.91) was in the “neutral” category along the Language Diversity Commitment Continuum and his score on the 3YO: Desirable (SS=-0.33) identified him as having “strong engagement” along the Desirable Practice Commitment Continuum.



Troy scored 2.5 on the Reflective Judgment Scale, in the Pre-Reflective Stage. In contrast to Rachel, Troy does not consider the “whole” child within the dilemma. According to the rater, he did not present “depth or complexity of thinking,” and viewed the student “from a deficit paradigm.” Troy supplied “short definitive answers without any recognition of ambiguity or uncertainty.” In all, Troy gave examples of what experts or coursework would suggest, but did not think on his own.

### *Leigh*

Leigh is a White female, fourth grade teacher at a suburban school, in between two northeastern cities. Like the other suburban teachers, Lauren and Megan, Leigh’s school is predominately White (89.1%), with 4.8 percent Asian, 2.3 percent African American, 2.0 percent Hispanic, and 1.3 percent Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander. Her K-4 school receives Title I funding and 11.7 percent of the students are low-income. Over 95 percent of students’ first language is English and 0.3 percent of students are considered LEP. Almost 15 percent (14.8%) of the students receive special education services. Leigh’s school scored “high” in ELA and mathematics on the most recent state performance ratings.

Similar to Marie, Leigh completed her undergraduate degree in elementary education at Chapman College and is currently working to complete her graduate degree at a neighboring university. Leigh did not take any language coursework while at Chapman. She has four years of experiences and state certification in Elementary Education. Leigh’s score on the LATS (SS=0.15) placed her in the “moderate positive” category along the Language Diversity Commitment Continuum and her score on the 3YO: Desirable (SS=0.02) identified her as having “strong engagement” along the

Desirable Practice Commitment Continuum. Like Megan and Marie, Leigh's scores were in-line with the regression model identified for participant selection.

Leigh scored 5.0 on the Reflective Judgment Scale, in the Quasi-Reflective Stage. Based on her response to the dilemma, the rater determined that Leigh was a complex thinker who "digs deeper into the issue, recognizing multiple aspects of the whole child, and considers his welfare." She takes a beginning stance and is open-minded. According to the rater, Leigh "deals with the ambiguities effectively and offers a number of possible scenarios."

### *Domain Analyses*

The results from the interviews were analyzed and organized into three domains: What Teachers Say They KNOW, What Teachers Say They DO, and What Teachers THINK. The first domain – KNOW – includes three themes: (a) language, (b) professional practice; and, (c) special education practice. The second domain – DO – includes the following four themes: (a) general assessment practices; (b) instruction; (c) professional practice; and, (d) special education practice. The third domain – THINK – includes the following four themes: (a) language; (b) perceptions; (c) professional practice; and, (d) special education practice. Each domain is discussed in a separate section below and includes questions from the interview protocol that helped to generate responses. Evidence to support the identified themes and an interpretive summary are included.

#### *What Teachers Say They KNOW*

The first domain – What Teachers Say They KNOW – included the following themes: (a) language; (b) professional practice; and, (c) special education practice (See

Table 5.2). Questions pertaining to this domain are included in Table 5.3. Evidence from the teachers' interviews, within each theme, is described in this section.

Table 5.2

*What Teachers Say They Know*

<b>What teachers say they KNOW</b>	Language	Policies about language instruction
		Assessment in native language
	Professional Practice	Professional Development about LDS and special education (LD)
	Special Education Practice	Special education referral process

Table 5.3

*Questions Related to What Teachers Say They KNOW*

<p>Pertinent Questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How many of your students receive instruction in their native language? What kind of instruction do they receive and who is/are the provider(s)?</li> <li>• Do you in/formally assess your students' language skills? If so, how?</li> <li>• What happens when you assess a LDS and you confirm that the student is NOT accessing the general curriculum?</li> <li>• Describe the type(s) of professional development, if any, available to address concerns about referring LDS for special education services.</li> <li>• Describe the referral process for students with suspected learning disabilities in your school/district.</li> </ul>
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*Language: Policies about language instruction.* Some teachers in this survey discussed federal, state, and district policies about language instruction. While suburban teachers' discussion focused on language screening forms, other teachers talked about native language instruction and policies around SEI classrooms. Suburban teachers in the study discussed language-screening forms that families fill out when registering their

children for school, to report on LDS' English proficiency. Three teachers explained that these forms were used to determine whether or not students would require a language evaluation.

When Question 2 arose in the conversation, Lauren requested a description of the law, while Troy and Megan explained they did not know how native language instruction would work, because they were not in schools at the time (before Question 2). In contrast, Ann described the historical context of instructional language in her school and explained, "They've kind of done away with [native language instruction] now."

Josephine focused on her school's policies and procedures for students in SEI classrooms transitioning to typical, English-only classrooms. She voiced her concerns about these policies, describing her perceptions and actions of the stakeholders involved:

It's a pretty pushy program, the teachers are pretty eager to mainstream our kids because it makes them look good and feel good. I think it puts kids at a pretty high risk just mainstreaming them to increase teachers' confidence... [Families] are usually involved, when the decision has been made and the school says, 'What, don't you think it's a great idea?' The parents are like, 'Oh, yeah, it's a great idea.' The parents are really eager for their kids to be with other American students and they're not ever going say they don't think they're ready. This year we had four kids mainstreamed and only one of them did I feel was appropriate.

Half of the teachers in this study discussed policies about language instruction. At the district and school level, teachers focused on policies about language screenings or integrating LDS. At the state level, some teachers could describe Question 2 and its

implications for instruction of LDS, but others did not know about Question 2. Moreover, two teachers suggested that they were not employed as teachers before 2002 (the passing of Question 2), so they did not understand how native language instruction worked in the past. In general, discussions about language policies – at any level – was minimal.

*Language: Assessment in L1.* Two urban teachers – Rachel and Ann – explained that assessment in students’ L1 did take place in their districts. Troy and Megan both explained that they “assume[d] so” and “th[ought] that [LDS] are allowed to be tested,” respectively. Rita and Troy explained the variability in their schools. Both agreed that particular native languages (e.g. Spanish) could be assessed in-house; some languages may be assessed outside of their building; or LDS were not assessed in their L1. In Marie’s district, a student’s English proficiency determined the language of assessment. When asked who determined proficiency, Marie responded, “The principal and also the team chair. [The team chair is] the special education chairperson and also our speech and language teacher and sometimes, the ELL teacher.” When asked if students’ L1 was assessed, Leigh explained that she “didn’t think so... I think at the elementary level just their English proficiency is assessed.” Finally, Lauren declared, “I don’t know [if students are assessed in their L1].”

Results from the interviews show teachers’ uncertainty about language policy, in particular about policies about assessing LDS in their L1. While a few teachers could articulate their district policies, the majority could not identify policies or procedures about language instruction or assessment. Teachers who were able to articulate language policies were those in contexts with large numbers of LDS or in classrooms educating LDS.

*Professional Practice: Professional Development about LDS and Special Education.* Six teachers – Ann, Josephine, Leigh, Marie, Lauren, and Troy – reported not knowing of any professional development (PD) opportunities about LDS and special education. The other three teachers – Megan, Rachel, and Rita – described experiences with this type of professional development.

Megan referred to a two-hour period nestled within larger language training. She said teachers frequently brought up issues around referring LDS to special education; “we would bring [the issues] up ourselves.... it came up a lot.” In general, she said they “always heard a lot of statistics about how the percentage is so much higher [for LDS to be placed in special education]. We know.... but there wasn’t any – ‘this is what you should do’ type thing, so I guess it was sort of like observe and use your professional judgment.” At Rachel’s two-way school there were “in-house, very short workshops.” She continued, “We’re in need, I’d say.”

While the majority of teachers were unaware of any professional development opportunities on the subject, Rita generated her own professional development, a professional learning community (PLC). Here was her description:

[The PLC] started in March and went until May. There were ten participants. We met twice a month and the participants that came said they felt so lost, that they didn’t have direction, that they weren’t comfortable referring [LDS]. And these were special education teachers, other than myself, and the director. There were no other ELL participants, they were all special education teachers. They said that they didn’t feel that the district had provided them with the tools or the resources to make those determinations. So, actually, they were thankful for the group.

While Rachel and Megan participated in PD training that touched upon the intersection of LDS and special education, Rita generated the only specific PD, about referring LDS to special education. Rita described this PD as a gathering of special education teachers, the

ELL director and herself, who discussed the intricacies of referring LDS to special education. In contrast, the large majority of the teachers in this study did not know of any PD available to them about LDS and special education.

*Special Education Practice: Special Education Referral Process.* All the teachers in the study were able to explain the special education referral process in their schools. Many explained how they communicated with parents. For example, Lauren explained, “I have to start by first contacting the parents and letting them know that I would like to bring them to [the prereferral team].” Others, like Leigh, were able to identify which students were being serviced under IEPs, “four of them are on IEPs and one who’s on is a 504 [Section 504 accommodation plan].” Rachel, Troy and Ann, for example, discussed how they documented their instruction and the student’s areas of weaknesses and strengths. Then, they used this information when the student was brought to the prereferral team.

*Summary.* Results from the interviews identified three themes in the first domain (KNOW): language, professional practice, and special education practice. This section reported results about what teachers know about their students’ language backgrounds, policies about language instruction and assessment in L1, PD about LDS and special education, and the special education referral process. As a whole, teachers interviewed could identify their students’ language backgrounds. While half of the teachers interviewed had knowledge of language policies, the discussion lacked depth and understanding. For example, teachers generally reported being unclear about language assessment policies in their schools. The majority of teachers reported they did not know of any available PD about LDS and special education; their districts did not offer specific

training. Like teachers' knowledge of students' languages, teachers in the study could explain the special education referral process in their context. The next section will focus on what teachers say they DO.

### *What Teachers Say They DO*

The second domain – What Teachers Say They DO – included the following themes: (a) assessment; (b) instruction; (c) professional practice; and, (d) special education practice (see Table 5.4). Questions pertaining to this domain are included in Table 5.5. Like the previous section, evidence from the teachers' interviews within each theme is described.

Table 5.4

### *What Teachers Say They Do*

<b>What teachers say they DO</b>	Assessment	General Assessment Practices
		Assessing language skills
	Instruction	Practices for all students
		Designing instruction for LDS
		Advocating
	Professional Practice	Collaborating
		Outsourcing to colleagues
		Prereferral
	Special Education Practice	Referral of LDS to special education

Table 5.5

### *Questions Pertaining to What Teachers Say They DO*

<p>Pertinent Questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In what ways do you assess your students?</li> <li>• Do you in/formally assess your students' language skills? If so, how?</li> <li>• Are LDS assessed in their native language?</li> <li>• What happens when you assess a LDS and you confirm that the student is NOT accessing the general curriculum?</li> </ul>
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- How do you design instruction to meet students' academic needs? How do you design instruction to meet students' linguistic needs?
- Is your school environment one that fosters collaboration? If so, in what ways?
- If you have questions about how to assess or instruct a LDS, is there someone in your school/district you can access for support? If so, who is that person/people?
- Does the process of referring students to special education differ based on individual students? Are determinations/decisions about LDS any different than their monolingual peers?
- Describe the referral process for students with suspected learning disabilities.

*Assessment: General Assessment Practices.* All teachers reported using a variety of assessments: formal and informal, formative and summative. They reported using “teacher-generated assessments,” “anecdotal assessment by posing questions, portfolios, product samples,” using “exit slips and checklists,” and “taking notes,” using clipboards to record information, and checking in “with kids and [to] make sure they’re getting it.” Specific qualitative assessments, like “DRAs [Developmental Reading Assessment],” and curriculum-based assessments, like “DIBELS [Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills]” were documented in the interviews.

Formal and summative assessments included unit tests and state mandated assessments (both language and content). In addition, Rita reported using specific language assessments, such as the BVAT (Bilingual Verbal Ability Test), LAS (Language Assessment Scales), and IPT (Individualized Developmental English Activities Proficiency Test).

Teachers reported using information gleaned from assessments to drive future instruction. For example, Marie reported using running records to document student

progress. She explained, “Every time I read with them I take notes in what they did well, what I want to work on next time.” Troy reported “re-teaching from the information I get from the formal assessments.”

Megan discussed how she used classroom assessments to determine necessary changes to future assessments. She noted:

I use a lot of my assessments and then see if I need to modify what I give them... I broke [the assessment] down into chunks and then I gave a word bank and then some of the kids had matching. But it was still assessing the same content. It was definitely a learning process, but seeing what I can modify for them to make sure they actually understand what we’re talking about without having format get in the way.

It is important to note that Megan uses the term “modify,” but when teachers modify assessments, it *does* change the content. The process she described, when there is no change in content, is an accommodation, not a modification.

*Assessment: Assessing Language Skills.* Six of the nine teachers specifically reported assessing students’ language skills through the assessment of students’ oral language and five of the nine reported assessing using the combination of oral language *and* written work. To assess students’ oral language and writing, teachers reported the following: “You try to give them prompts when they’re communicating and try to teach them how to structure their sentences - when they’re speaking and when they’re writing”; having “kids acting out or write their own play or rewrite the ending, then that kind of helps to assess”; and “conversational kind of interaction in the classroom gives me a baseline if there are any concerns there. Also, their writing is the way that I assess their

sentence structure and grammar.” Two teachers described continuous observations, like “listening to what’s going on in the classroom.” The majority of teachers in the study reported assessing their students’ oral language skills using observation and determining writing language skills through writing samples.

In contrast, Marie, explained, “I don’t really assess [students’] language skills that much. If I notice them having language difficulties often I’ll take notes and just write it down so that I can tell our speech and language teacher and ask her what she thinks of it.”

Finally, Troy, Josephine, Rachel, and Rita explained using the state mandated language assessment to assess their students’ language skills. Troy, for example, described his experience using the assessment to measure growth over time. He said,

I was surprised to look back at their scores from the previous time... because often they were lower than I, than I was experiencing, to the point where I had to ask another teacher to give some feedback and sort of run through the matrix. She did the same thing and we agreed with what we were saying but we wanted to make sure. I was just like maybe I’m doing this wrong.

All the teachers in the study reported administering formal and informal assessments. Some teachers used information from assessments to drive instruction and further assessment. While six of the nine teachers reported assessing students’ language skills, specifically through oral language and written tasks, four teachers said they personally administered the state mandated language assessment. General assessments were more pervasive in teachers’ reported practice than assessment specific to language.

*Instruction: Practices for All Students.* Three of the nine teachers specifically discussed instructional practices they use with *all* students, regardless of their native language. Ann reported that vocabulary is an area of need.

I would say most of my students are behind in vocabulary even my English speakers. Just from their socio-economic background and lack of exposure in the home to learning... It's kind of an issue for all of them. It's not just my ESL kids. Definitely vocabulary has kind of become a huge focus. More and more we're discussing how to really add vocabulary instruction.

Lauren described grouping strategies for students who required skill-based work, saying: "The same would go for a student that was in my classroom with English as a second language. They'd be in a group that was learning the basic parts so that they could, then move up, but understand the basic pieces of it." Troy addressed specific practices he would use for students, ones that could benefit LDS. Here, he described the impact of language on teaching math:

A lot of the modifications that I make to my math lessons play to modifications that an English language learner could benefit from in terms of things that I was previously talking about – like the visual cues and a lot of the hands on work, and having sort of like a kinesthetic component to the learning that's going on. So it's not just reading and getting caught up in the language, because I think for all students, ELL or not, if they are not strong readers the language-based curriculum can really put a damper on their math, their math abilities. It doesn't really give you a clear picture of what their abilities are in math, if they're caught up just in the language part.

*Instruction: Designing Instruction for LDS.* When asked, “*How do you design instruction to meet students’ linguistic needs?*” teachers responded in a variety of ways, including Rachel who answered, “in a million ways.” Teachers described varied grouping strategies: using visuals, teacher modeling, tapping into students’ background knowledge, conferencing with students, creating situations for peer interaction, and implementing theme-based and/or activity-based instruction. For example, Marie explained,

A lot of instruction is very interactive and we do a lot of activities and songs, they’re moving and singing and thinking about things in different ways... I almost always have visuals and I have a word wall... the word wall is all words and pictures since a lot of them are non-readers. I use a lot of pictures and I especially work on speaking very slowly. When I’m writing their ideas, I tend to write it and then draw a picture that matches it so they can remember what I wrote.

Josephine said, “kids are working independently, so you have lots of time for individual work, or one-on-one, or with a small group of students who are at the same level. Or, [if they are] not at the same level... a lot of peer editing and independent reading.” As reported earlier, Troy reported using “visual cues and a lot of the hands-on work.” Rachel provided an overview of instruction in her two-way classroom, rather than specific methods:

Despite the fact that some students are English dominant, I treat the entire class as were learning in a second language, and at the same time I teach regular kindergarten... I think my methods must be and I hope are geared toward students who have difficulty accessing the curriculum because of language.

In addition to teaching practices, Rita reported using the state English language proficiency benchmarks and “curriculum framework for the content” to plan instruction. Megan reported using language objectives, which are specifically taught in Chapman College’s language coursework and Sheltered English Instruction Professional Development (SEI PD). She said,

I try to have a language objective with every lesson that we do... I think that’s important for all the kids to know. I think making sure you put the words up or your language objectives for the day. You show them if you write it, then they know that’s something they need to be thinking about, too.

While Rita and Megan integrated state frameworks and practices disseminated by the state, Troy, Marie, and Josephine provided specific, linguistically based, instructional practices. In contrast, Ann, Lauren, Leigh, and Rachel reported designing instruction for LDS, but did not give specific examples for the particular population. It is important to note that Lauren, Marie, and Leigh reported having little contact with LDS, yet in their interviews recounted designing instruction for LDS. Further, Rita, Josephine, and Rachel, who primarily educate LDS, talked about their instruction implicitly; they discussed the education of all students, including their individual, linguistic needs.

*Professional Practice: Advocating.* Four of the teachers specifically discussed advocating for their students. Leigh reported, “I have a student that I fought for all of last year [to be referred].” With regard to students’ eligibility for special education services, Rachel explained, “I have several students who it’s very hard to fight for, to get resources for them, because they’re making progress in the curriculum.” Within the context of the

prereferral team meetings in his school and selecting students to present at these meetings, Troy reported,

I feel like if you know that you're going to have an opportunity [to present a student to the prereferral team] and to get a student help that he or she needs, you want to make sure that it's a student who really needs the help, rather than sort of wasting the slot for sort of an iffy case... we want to make it count if we have the opportunity.

Rita discussed, at length, her attempts to advocate for her students. She explained,

When I first came, I had students who were maybe on an IEP, who maybe had been diagnosed in middle school. And they never updated their IEP forms, or they never identified them as having learning disabilities. It's a mess, it's a complete mess.

She reported feeling that there are LDS in her class with learning difficulties beyond learning language. She observed "trying to be proactive... specifically advocating for linguistically diverse students" and observed that "the more that I educate myself, the more that the district performs professional development, that [the referral process] will have changes."

Rita reported the following change: "Over the past few years, because I've advocated... I've invited [the special educator] to the professional learning community, so I do think she's more open, more confident in my skills in making these referrals..." All teachers in this study reported advocating for students in general and four specifically reported advocating for what they view as appropriate referrals to special education.

*Professional Practice: Collaborating.* Aside from Troy, the teachers in the study that specifically discussed collaboration in their environments were the same five teachers that were in schools using RTI. In this reported problem-solving environment, teachers recounted positive relations with their colleagues. For example, Leigh said, “We bounce ideas off of each other, we brainstorm together, we do a lot of collaborative planning. Everybody is incredibly helpful, supportive, collegial, willing to share anything and help in whatever way possible.” Marie observed, “[Teachers] work together a lot. One of the things the first grade team has is a half-hour meeting every month when we get to talk and work together, but more so than that, the consultation of working with all those other special education supports.”

*Professional Practice: Outsourcing to colleagues.* When asked what they would do about LDS in their classrooms who were not accessing the general curriculum, many teachers in this study said they would bring their concerns to a colleague. Lauren and Leigh explained that the Title I teacher frequently taught students, like LDS, who needed additional reading support. Lauren noted, “[The Title I teacher] sees my students who don’t have a learning need, who don’t have an identified learning need, but are still needing additional support after first grade so that they can keep up with the second grade curriculum,” and Leigh explained, “a lot of times [struggling LDS] fall into, they get the Title I reading support. They might get some classroom math support also because probably the language is impacting their math skills... but it probably wouldn’t go through the special education teacher.”

Marie voiced her concerns about the difficulty in determining why LDS may not be able to access the curriculum. The conversation from the interview follows:



Renée: What if you didn't know the reason why [the LDS] weren't accessing the general curriculum? What would you do?

Marie: I guess you'd try to find out why [the LDS are] not accessing it.

Renée: What would you do to find out?

Marie: Gosh. That's hard.

Renée: I know, I know it is. Take your time.

Marie: I don't know. Bethany [(the SLP)] does this. She figures out why they're not getting it.

Marie explained further that because she has "so much support around her...other people" with "so much more expertise... that they're the ones who are looking at [the situation] and figuring out what we can do to help [struggling LDS]." This support included the SLP and special educator, and if "stuck," Marie said she would ask the ELL teacher. When asked if supporting colleagues had background in sorting out whether or not LDS are struggling due to a language disability or, rather, an issue with language acquisition, Marie answered, "I don't think they have any expertise in that."

Leigh and Troy both reported accessing the ELL teachers in their schools to help them trouble-shoot these situations. Leigh said, "If I had a concern about a student who was ELL, I would ask the ELL teacher to assess. We have a speech and language therapist in the building, so if I wasn't aware of an ELL concern, then I would probably go to them for more assessment." Troy, when he discussed a new arrival from Trinidad whose file had not yet arrived, said that while he waited he would "have the ESL teacher trying to talk to the principal to maybe get her on the [ESL teacher's] caseload."

With regard to assessment, in particular, Josephine described the interactions between the SEI teachers and special educators in her building. She explained,

I think the special education teachers pass the buck back to the SEI teacher and I think [special educators are] just as lost in the process, too. They're like, 'Oh, it's just a language thing, just a language thing.' They're struggling with the same question that we're struggling with, so they're just like, 'Oh, you take them.' You know, it's very difficult... And I didn't mean they were passing the buck in like a negative way. You know what I mean?

Teachers in this study frequently brought their concerns about LDS to colleagues. Teachers accessed colleagues, such as Title I teachers, SLPs, ELL teachers, and special educators, to support their LDS. Suburban teachers – Marie, Lauren, and Leigh – who had limited interactions with LDS, outsourced students more frequently than their urban counterparts. Josephine described how SEI teachers and special educators outsource back and forth to each other, based on what she perceived as colleagues struggling with the same question: Does a LDS' struggle stem from trouble with language acquisition or due to a language disability?

Within the theme, professional practice, teachers provided information about their advocating and collaboration skills as well as the specific ways they outsource students to their colleagues. All teachers reported advocating for students in general, and four teachers discussed advocating for students, or “fighting for” students to be deemed eligible for special education services. Two of the four teachers advocated for appropriate referrals to special education for LDS and the other two for monolingual students. In general, the five teachers who reported more positive collaborative experiences worked in

schools implementing RTI. Suburban teachers in the study, who rarely educate LDS, said they would outsource their struggling LDS, compared to the urban teachers who discussed ways they would reevaluate their instruction and/or collaborate with colleagues about how they could best meet the needs of the student.

*Special Education Practice: Prereferral Team.* Lauren, Leigh and Marie, teaching in schools using RTI, reported participating in prereferral team meetings. All three teachers gave lengthy descriptions of the process in their schools. Leigh's description illustrates a "typical" description from teachers working in schools using RTI. She said:

We meet as a [grade level]/TAP team, we list the kids we're concerned about, we prioritize them and then at the subsequent meetings, going in order of priority on the list, we present the students. The child's classroom teacher would fill out the assessment data, what our concerns are and we can bring work samples and things like that and we basically present the student to the team. Then, the team brainstorms together suggestions of interventions to try. It's sort of marshaling our resources kind of a thing... And sometimes it's the classroom teacher and sometimes the support staff or special educators or whoever is able to best do this. And then so we write up that plan and monitor for the next three weeks so we see... After three weeks we report back to the team and say if we've seen any progress or not and then usually because three weeks is generally not enough time to see huge change, we monitor for another three weeks. And then after the six-week period we report back to the team and the team discusses and decides whether the interventions have helped or if the student is still not making sufficient progress. If they're not making sufficient progress with the documented

intervention then we take them to building-based support teams, which is our principal and several teachers across the grade levels and several special educators across the grade levels. We basically take all the data that we've gathered from the [grade level/prereferral] team process and we bring it to [referral team]. [The referral team] is who decides whether or not to test.

Although not in schools implementing RTI, Troy's and Rachel's descriptions of the process in their schools were similar to Leigh's. Ann's description of the prereferral process was different from other teachers in the study, because classroom teachers in her school were not physically present for prereferral team meetings. Instead, she completes paperwork and then awaits notification from the team.

*Special Education Practice: Referral of LDS to Special Education.* Rita and Ann reported referring LDS to special education, but in distinctly different ways. Ann reported referring LDS in her school "if everyone feels that they've done everything they can and no progress is being made." On the other hand, Rita, a self-contained ESL classroom teacher, reported that when she makes referrals for LDS, "somehow the paperwork seems to get misplaced;" she explained that her students' paperwork gets "lost" in the system. She continued that those overseeing her program, often responded: "Maybe [the LDS] need more time and they're already in a self-contained classroom and what more interventions can we give them?" She reported that the district does not want to provide special education services to students she identifies as being in need.

Lauren and Leigh, who have little or no exposure to LDS in their classrooms, described whether or not pre/referral decisions were different for LDS versus monolingual students. In her school, Leigh reported:

[LDS are] not appropriate to test for a learning disability or something like that, because that's not what the issue is, the issue is language... a lot of times they get the Title I reading support. And they might get some of the classroom math support, because probably the language is impacting their math skills... but it probably wouldn't go through the special education teacher. They might come through the [prereferral] team still because we'd be concerned about them and we'd discuss at the grade level – what we can do to help them, but probably they wouldn't go through to [referral team] to be tested. Unless there was something obviously indicated that there was a learning disability in addition to the ELL. Within her context, Lauren explained that she honestly did not know “if [the team] would suggest testing...guessing that it wouldn't” and that perhaps the team might “make you work with a [LDS] for a longer period before referring them for testing. I could find out and just let you know. I just honestly don't know that answer.”

When asked about his experience referring LDS to special education, Troy replied, “I have not [referred LDS] to special education.” He continued, “A lot of the kids that come to me that are ELLs are very high on the [state-mandated language] scale. They're 4's, or they're FLEPs [(former LEPs)].”

Josephine and Rachel, who teach in SEI and a two-way bilingual classroom, respectively, reported that within their school contexts, LDS are usually give time before they are referred. Josephine said, “They just give them time. And then a referral process after - they have to be proficient in the [state mandated language assessment]. [Then, they could be assessed using] English testing. Then they would refer them.”

Six of the nine teachers reported participating in the prereferral team process in

their schools. In general, they described the process similarly, as problem solving in nature. In terms of referring LDS to special education, two teachers reported referring one or more LDS to special education. Two other teachers reported that LDS in their school contexts were given time, compared to their monolingual peers, before referral to special education. Responses varied, when teachers in the study were asked: *Are (special education referral) determinations/decisions about linguistically diverse students any different than their monolingual peers?* In most cases, teachers reported what they *thought* about this question, rather than what they *do* in their schools (See the next section, What Teachers THINK, for further discussion.).

*Summary.* Results from the interviews identified four themes in the second domain (DO): assessment, instruction, professional practice, and special education practice. This section reported results about what teachers say they *do* in these areas: assessment, including assessing language skills; instructional practices for all students; designing instruction for LDS; advocating; collaborating; outsourcing to colleagues; the prereferral process; and, referring LDS to special education. All teachers in the study reported assessing their students, and over half assessed particular language skills. Teachers who educate LDS regularly, implicitly described their instructional strategies, and although many of the suburban teachers had limited contact with LDS, they confirmed designing instruction for LDS. Within their professional practice, four teachers explicitly discussed advocating for students, including LDS, whom they felt should be referred to special education. Those teachers in schools using RTI reported higher levels of collaboration and suburban teachers in the study discussed outsourcing their struggling LDS more frequently than urban teachers. Six of the nine teachers reported participating

in the prereferral process and two teachers said they had referred a LDS to special education. Much of the discussion about the referral process of LDS compared to monolingual students centered on suburban teachers' perceptions of the process and what they *thought* should happen, not how, or when they (or other teachers in their building) referred LDS to special education. The next section will discuss what teachers THINK.

### *What Teachers THINK*

The third domain – What Teachers THINK – includes the following themes: (a) language learning; (b) teachers' perceptions; (c) professional practice; and, (d) special education practice (see Table 5.6). Questions pertaining to this domain are included in Table 5.7. Similar to the previous sections, evidence from the teachers' interviews is described in this section.

Table 5.6  
*What Teachers Think*

<b>What teachers THINK</b>	Language Learning	Native language instruction
	Perceptions	Speech-Language Pathologist
		ESL teacher and caseload
		Families and parents
		Integration of LDS with peers
	Professional Practice	Collaboration
		Assessment
		Professional development / training / teacher education
	Special Education Practice	Prereferral Process
		Referral to special education
		Special education decisions for LDS

Table 5.7  
*Questions Pertaining to What Teachers THINK*

<p>Pertinent Questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What's your opinion of native language instruction?</li> <li>• Is your school environment one that fosters collaboration? If so, in what ways?</li> <li>• If you have questions about how to assess or instruct a LDS, is there someone in your school/district you can access for support? If so, who is that person/people?</li> <li>• What happens when you assess a LDS and you confirm the student is NOT accessing the curriculum? What do you think about? What kind of action(s) do you take?</li> <li>• Describe the type(s) of professional development, if any, available to address concerns about referring LDS for special education services.</li> <li>• Does the process of referring students to special education differ based on individual students? Are determinations/decisions about LDS any different than their monolingual peers?</li> <li>• Describe the referral process for students with suspected learning disabilities. What would you change about the process? Do you feel like the process is effective in identifying appropriate students to receive special education services? Why or why not?</li> <li>• Does the process of referring students to special education differ based on individual students?</li> </ul>
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*Language Learning: Native Language Instruction.* Every teacher in the study was asked his or her opinion of native language instruction. Answers varied from short and succinct, to long and vacillating responses. Some teachers took a stand while others did not. Josephine, Rachel, and Rita all replied with short, positive responses toward native language instruction. Josephine said, "I think it's ridiculous that we don't have native instruction here. In a community like [urban center] where there's so many different languages it's something that we should be really excited about and try and foster" and



Rachel explained, “[Native language instruction is] essential to complete really meaningful literacy development. Also, it is just an incredible connection with families, to be able to support their education.” Rita, viewing this instruction as more individualistic, said,

I think it varies with each individual, with that particular student needs. At times, I think it’s just a wonderful bridge. Then conceptually, do they have the understanding? I want to know if they have that content understanding. At times it is better to discern that in their native language. I also don’t want it to be continuous L1 instruction, because then you don’t make that bridge to English. I think it depends on the particular student, the particular student need. I am not adverse to it. And with making the community connection, I think it is very important.

All three teachers highlighted the important connection between native language instruction in schools and their neighboring communities.

Megan also favored native language instruction, but explained that she would not know how it could be implemented. She said,

I really wish that students coming over could receive content instruction in their native language, because I think it’s a shame that if they don’t understand English that they’re kind of missing content that they could be learning. I don’t really know how that would work, because I wasn’t in schools back when that was still allowed.

Like Megan, Troy and Marie argued that they were unsure how native language instruction could be put into practice. Megan argued, “I guess in theory it seems like such

a good idea to instruct them in both English and their native language, but it seems really impractical,” and Troy said, “I’m not totally familiar with how [native language instruction] works and plays out because I’ve never been exposed to it.” Troy and Marie’s answers were two-fold; in the beginning they shifted back and forth, but by the end they favored English instruction. Marie said,

I think that for kids who have very little proficiency in English it makes a lot of sense to do native language instruction.... I’m kind of torn... Because, I see why it’s so important to get that native language instruction so they’re not losing their ability to speak their native language and so they can be truly bilingual when they grow up. They have all the academic language, academic vocabulary in their native language, but at the same time I think that they should be instructed in English because that’s what they’re going to need all the way through school. I like that they all work together [when they’re speaking English] I feel like... I don’t like the idea of separating them based on the language they speak.... they’d be pulled-out of the classroom so much that they’d miss out on what’s going on in the classroom and they’d miss out on that sense of community of being with their peers. If they can learn in English, I think it’s better for them to learn in English so that they have all that common language with their peers.

Like Marie, Troy also stated that learning English allows for students to participate fully in their classroom communities. He observed,

I really like the idea of a two-way bilingual classroom. I think that it surfs the gray area between native language and English only. It allows students to get exposure to English, which I think is probably the goal of that law ([Question 2,

2002)] being passed and why a lot of people wanted it was so that people who are new citizens to our country, coming from different areas of the world, would be able to fully participate in everything around this country. If they knew English. I'm sure that was a piece of that, but also you need the child to be successful. Being able to refer to what you're teaching in their native language along with English I think would be a great way to allow the kid to better participate in schools... being able to speak English, to be able to participate in these things in this country. Allowing a student to participate in school is a part of that, so you should, they should be able to participate in a way that is comfortable for them, but also allowing them to learn how to speak English and learn the academic language in English as well.

The interviewer furthered the conversation about academic language by restating the following: "So the academic language would be the goal – I don't want to put words in your mouth, so you tell me – the academic language would be the goal and the native language would serve as a conduit to get to that goal?" He responded,

Correct. I think in terms of making a student feel comfortable in the classroom, if they're coming to a completely foreign place, [English] is a little slice of familiarity for them and it's a lot easier for a child to learn when they're not stressed out all the time.

When probed about whether or not native instruction was appropriate for his students, Troy responded, "No. Last year's students all spoke in their native language at home and were very fluent in English in the classroom. They were fluent in the academic language at school, so I don't think [native language instruction] would be necessary for them."

Ann's answers moved in the opposite direction of Marie and Troy; in the beginning she discussed both sides, but by the end she summarized, "I think maybe some instruction in your native language would be helpful." She began,

I've had students that I think maybe would have benefited from [native language instruction]. I would think if you came from a place where that's the only language you know, I would think that would be a step towards transitioning you into a different environment. Then again, some kids thrive when they're just kind of thrown in and pick up the language very quickly. I guess it really depends on the way you learn. When I was in school, when I was a kid, I know that there was instruction given in native language. You know I'm not sure which way is the better way to learn to be honest with you.

Ann ended,

...it depends if you have some, if you already know how to read when you're coming in... if you're where you're supposed to be in your own language. You don't want kids to lose content. You want them to keep learning the content, even if it's in their own language, as opposed to just being thrown into an environment now where you have no idea what's going on and not only do you not know the language, but you're losing the time to learn to gain content knowledge.

Finally, Lauren and Leigh provided lengthy answers which discussed how they could "see both sides" and that native language instruction "has pros and cons," respectively. In the end, they did not take a specific stand about native language instruction. Lauren said,

If the child came in and I saw that they were making progress with just instruction from me in English and they were able to follow along a little bit I would

probably keep it going, but if a child is coming in and they just can't handle the instruction, are we doing a disservice to this child by speaking to them in a language that they don't understand? Whereas, they could be learning the concepts fine in their native language. It's such a hard piece to look at.... I would want the student to start learning English and to be able to learn in English, but I would think it would have to be a mixture of the two. Ideally it would be nice to have a [ELL] teacher right in the classroom. To me that's the best way to have some sort of mix of an ELL teacher and an English teacher, so you could kind of hop back and forth if the child doesn't understand something. But, it would be a shame to kind of cut off the child from learning because it's not the same language. But, I can kind of see both sides - where the state thinks, we have to continue teaching with English so that these children can learn it, but, you want the best for the child, so it's hard to take a stand on it I guess.

Like Lauren, Leigh discussed the multiple factors she viewed in this discussion. She said, I think like most things in education it has pros and it has cons and it has situations it's appropriate and situations where it's not appropriate... I think if you have students who come from another country, especially if they're older students and they don't have English skills, then seating them in a classroom that's taught all in English is doing them a disservice. Because, they have skills in their native language and they have background knowledge and vocabulary and content area knowledge and you're not accessing it if they can't understand any of the instruction. I think one of the cons is they need exposure to English in order to learn more English, but I think it's wrong to think that if you just put a kid in an

English speaking classroom that automatically they're going to just pick up on it, without any guidance or instruction or help. I think if students come with some English skills then they should be in an English-speaking classroom at least part of the time, maybe most of the time. I think a lot of it depends on the classroom that you're putting them in as well... I think kind of as an overarching view, the ideal is always that you can make a decision based on the individual, the individual situation and the individual child. Obviously, in education, that's always our goal, but in reality it doesn't always work like that. Because, if you have a limited population, there might not be a native language classroom. If there's one student who speaks a language, there's probably not going to be funding for a teacher to instruct them in that native language just by themselves, one-on-one. I think it depends on the kid, it depends on the school, and it depends on the teacher. There are a lot of factors that go into it. I think there are situations where it's appropriate and it's helpful and then you're trying to move towards more independent, more time in a classroom where the instruction's going on in English. But I don't think we can expect kids to do that right away, especially if they're coming with no English skills.

The nine interviewed teachers provided a range of answers to this question. Some teachers thought native language is essential to their school communities, while others reported that learning English is the ultimate goal of instruction, and still others offered conflicted responses.

*Perceptions: Speech-Language Pathologist.* As discussed previously in terms of outsourcing to colleagues, Marie reported that she relied on the SLP in her building to

“figure out why [LDS] aren’t getting it [struggling to access the curriculum].” In Marie’s case, the SLP is in her classroom every day, during reading and writing. She perceives the SLP to be a resource. Similarly, Rita perceived the SLP in her building to have distinct skills to support LDS. When asked whether or not her students could be fully supported with her alone, she responded, “There is some overlap, but I am not a speech language pathologist... I think there is a whole repertoire of information [that a SLP could provide], like social pragmatic groups, that my students could be invited to.” Moreover, she went on to describe the ways SLPs could support LDS in ways she could not. She said, “I think that more time on tests, accommodations that might be afforded in a special education classroom... I can’t give those accommodations, whereas if it is on a IEP [students could receive them].” The remaining teachers in the study describe the SLPs in their buildings as service providers and pre/referral team members.

*Perceptions: ELL Teacher and Caseload.* During the interview seven of the nine teachers discussed their building’s or district’s ELL teacher. Rachel, who teaches in a bilingual school, did not discuss ELL teachers because she explained they did not exist in her school context. Lauren said she was unsure if there was a contact person in her district who could support LDS; she stated, “I’m wondering if there’s someone in student services assigned to those students, in particular in terms of overseeing what they’re doing.”

The remaining seven teachers described their limited contact with the ELL teacher as positive. Josephine reported being comfortable approaching her ESL teacher for support, saying, “The ESL specialist in my school is amazing and well-trained and really good at her job. She kind of knows everything, she knows how things go.” Ann,

too, described her colleague as “very open to things.” She continued, “She will help you.” Megan agreed, saying, “the ELL teacher who comes in, she’s definitely really open and I know that I could ask her [for support].”

The majority of teachers said they had limited access to the ELL teacher. Two teachers – Ann and Leigh – explained that their districts overworked ELL teachers who spent most of their time with older students. Ann explained, “we have a very, big caseload and we have one ESL teacher and she can’t meet all their needs... She can’t meet their needs, so most of the time they’re not, the lower grades are not getting services.” Leigh added,

This poor woman ([ELL teacher])... every time I see her she looks harried, she looks frazzled, she’s running from one place to another, because she’s stretched too thin. I think a lot of her attention gets focused at the high school level because as [LDS] get older the gap gets bigger and so the gap is the biggest in the high school. And so she’s trying to accommodate those kids, and is overwhelmed by that alone. On top of that she’s got the elementary school kids and I think it’s almost an attitude – well, they’re in elementary school so you just fold them in, or you just make it work, the gap’s not that big and they’ll pick it up... certainly they should be in the classroom as much as possible, but I think also in our district in particular, there’s a strong hesitancy to pick up ELL students at the elementary level – because there’s not time in anybody’s schedule to see them. I think it does fall on the Title I reading specialist very often. Because, obviously, if the children don’t have English skills, then often times their DRA scores are below grade level and they fall onto the caseload of the Title I reading specialist, because they’re not



appropriate for the special education teacher's caseload... I don't really feel like I can go to her, because she's just stretched so thin, I feel terrible for her every time I see her and I hear what she's dealing with.

Marie and Megan both explained that the ELL teachers were not always in their buildings. In Marie's school, "[The ELL teacher]'s just not in the building very much because she's in the whole district... She's in the building two days a week, but it's only for maybe an hour or two each time. She tends to only see a child once or twice a week in pullouts." Megan said she knows that she could access the teacher for support, but "the problem is she's not always, she's not there all day." With regard to the newly placed, "in-house" ELL teacher, Troy explained, "I don't actually know what her role would be. I know that she's an ESL teacher and we've been directed to bring any ESL related questions to her."

In addition to not usually being available, teachers described the ELL teachers as "harried," "overwhelmed," and having "very big caseloads." For example, Rita described the director of her ELL program as being "so overwhelmed [she] will 'half test' people. She'll do an oral screening. If you don't do really well, then she won't even bother doing the reading/writing component." In general, while teachers' perceive their school's ELL teachers as willing to help, they are overburdened with large caseloads and not provided with enough time to support students effectively. Further, the structure of particular schools can support or exacerbate an ELL teacher's availability to support LDS.

*Perceptions: Families and Parents.* Teachers in this study commented about parents and families in two areas: the special education referral process and home languages. Ann described her feelings and some parents' behaviors, saying, "One of the

big issues we have is sometimes parents kind of get in the way. A lot of times we have parents that aren't 'big' on letting their kids get evaluated... [The parents] set up a meeting to come in and sign paperwork, they don't show up. We set up another meeting and they don't show up." With regard to slow pace for making referrals, Leigh perceived the parents to share some of the blame, saying, "part of [the slow pace] was on the parents' side too, because when we sent home permission to test they refused testing for a while."

With respect to the language domain, Josephine commented that "the [LDS] parents are really eager for their kids to be with other American students and they're not ever going say they don't think they're ready [to be mainstreamed out of SEI classrooms]." Megan commented on her districts' perceptions about how language surveys are completed: "I know a big problem that my district faces is that a lot of families say 'yes' [that English is spoken at home] when that's not the case."

Finally, Rachel perceived her families as contributing to their children's school experiences. She said, "We have students who are just terrified of school. This is their first time being out of the family, so they're just quiet and shy, so really finding out about what's happening at home [is important]."

*Perceptions: Integration of LDS with Peers.* Josephine, teaching within a SEI classroom, and Rita, in a self-contained ELL room, both report that their LDS are integrated infrequently with their monolingual peers. Josephine reported that her 12 students appear to be integrated, but are not. She said, "Technically our physical classroom is in the wing with the fifth and sixth graders, so it looks like we're with them,

but we're not. It's like the fifth and sixth grade SEI kids only see each other for two years." Rita described the lack of integration in her school:

I might have students born in the program that have not exited the ELL program since maybe from the first grade. So first grade, second grade, third grade, fourth grade – moving all through the grades. They may have been in the self-contained program, away from the mainstream or they are just coming to me for language arts concerns. That is a little of a concern for me, not the newcomers in it, but a student who struggles linguistically might be in the program 5 or 6 years and that does bother me... I don't think [the students] have the full benefit of a proper education. I don't think it's the least restricted, I think it's the most restricted. So a lot of red flags go up for me.

The remaining seven teachers did not discuss the integration of LDS students with their monolingual peers.

Data from the study revealed some teachers have distinctive perceptions about the SLPs and ELL teachers in their buildings as well as students' families and the integration of LDS in their schools. Two teachers, in particular, viewed SLPs as distinctly different professionals, meaning SLPs had discreet skills that could not be duplicated by other professionals. The majority of teachers mentioned having SLPs in their schools, but did not provide individual perceptions. In contrast, seven of nine teachers specifically discussed their perceptions of their ELL teachers. Further, teachers generally thought that ELL teachers had large caseloads without ample time to effectively serve LDS. Over half of the teachers revealed their perceptions of parents and families, with regard to the referral process and families' languages. A few teachers said they thought parents slowed

down the referral process, another perceived families to complete language forms inaccurately, and one teacher perceived families as adding value to LDS school experiences. The SEI teacher, Josephine, and self-contained ELL teacher, Rita, were the two teachers who provided their perceptions about the integration of LDS with their peers. In both cases, teachers reported that their LDS were isolated from their monolingual peers. Of the four perception areas, teachers' perceptions of ELL teachers were the most prominent in the data, including evidence from seven teachers. The other three areas identified teachers' perceptions about other stakeholders – SLPs, ELL teachers, and families.

*Professional Practice: Collaboration.* Teachers' perceptions of their professional environments, in terms of collaboration, varied. Two teachers revealed that their schools encouraged collaboration; another two explained that collaboration was not forced, but that they took advantage of it; and three others described their environments as not promoting collaboration. Marie and Leigh gave descriptions of how they felt due to the positive collaboration in their buildings. Marie said, "You feel safe and you just know that people are going to help you and suggest things that you haven't done yet or make you feel okay about what you're trying" and Leigh reported, "We bounce ideas off of each other, we brainstorm together, we do a lot of collaborative planning. Everybody is incredibly helpful, supportive, collegial, willing to share anything and help in whatever way possible." Megan said that collaboration is not forced and grade level meetings are productive. She explained,

I mean [collaboration is] not forced upon you, so not everyone does it. I've definitely taken advantage of it... in the past we had once a month grade level

meetings so all the teachers district-wide at a grade level get together. And most of the teachers in grade five were there and it was really productive.

While Lauren described her frustration with her administration, she went on to say,

I do feel that we're a very close group of teachers. We share information, especially on my team. We are constantly sharing – plans that we have and different ideas. We worked very well with the first grade team and we're in touch with them about the upcoming students and we do collaborate on different whole school activities and learning pieces. I'd say it's a strength for our school.

In contrast, Ann, Rita, and Troy described their schools as ones that did not foster collaboration. Ann's description focused on the lack of time for collaboration. She said,

Some people don't want to give up their free time to [participate in common planning time]... Is there enough time to really do as much collaborating as we should be doing? No, there isn't. It would be nice if there was more time. It would be nice if sometimes [the principal] could give us a little more time to plan together... but it isn't given. That would be nice.

Rita explained that she did have common planning time, but said that teachers used the time to complain instead. She observed,

I think people feel threatened in my particular district. I would like to think we like to collaborate and in my particular school we are into clusters, so everyday we have a common planning time where we plan. But, we don't plan. We complain about children... We get together and we moan and we groan and we complain about students. I wanted to have another professional learning group to educate people more to ELLs. There is a lot of insecurity with particular people

and they don't want to have to go beyond what they have to do... I'm used to collaborating where a district's curriculum person would come in and do a little mini-workshop professional development. We don't do that. We go to [a coffee shop] and we just moan about children and its so frustrating for me.

Troy explained that while he and his co-teacher collaborated, the school culture did not stimulate collaboration, but he thought it was beginning to change. He explained,

There was a disparity in the age and a lot of the more veteran teachers were less apt to sort of dig into data and try new and different things because they were sort of set in their ways. 'I do this, this works, that's how it's going to be.' So that is sort of a poisonous culture when you're trying to make a more collaborative environment K through 8, instead of every grade level team working on its own little island. So we're trying to get better at that.

Some of the teachers in the study perceived their school cultures to be collaborative, while others felt the opposite.

*Professional Practice: Assessment.* Comments about assessment focused on formal assessments, typically state assessments or those used to determine eligibility for special education. When asked how he assessed his students, Troy laughed and said,

All they do is get assessed. There are so many different tests that they have to take... I just mean 20 out of the 180 days are assessments that are mandated, in addition to the three [state assessment] days for [English/language arts] and two for math, so it's really 25 days.

Josephine's students in her SEI classroom took the state mandated assessments and she reported the experience to be horrible. She said,

They still have to take [the MCAS], but they don't do well, they cry and they hate it. It's horrible. I dread it. Everybody's says, 'MCAS day - oh you get to sit and proctor it all day, it's so easy.' I can't think of anything worse than making children cry over a test.

In her bilingual classroom, Rachel reported concerns about students who did not qualify for services. She explained,

I have a big issue with the fact that students make who makes gains in assessments and who do make progress in school are very unlikely to display a disability, although many students do learn how to compensate for disabilities and can make progress in the general curriculum.

And, Josephine discussed specific concerns about having LDS assessed in order to determine eligibility for special education. She said,

I don't now that I know enough about special education, but it seems like it's very difficult to know what a kid knows unless you're going to assess them in their native language and you're going to assume that they've been to school. So, if you have kids that haven't been to school and you're not going to give them tests in their own language anyway, then I don't know that special education assessments can really be effective.

Teachers who provided their thoughts about assessment, focused on assessing LDS for special education eligibility and state mandated assessments.

*Professional Practice: Professional Development / Training / Teacher Education.*

Teachers in the study commented on their own teacher preparation and professional development available in their schools. While the majority said their coursework

experiences at Chapman College were positive, many were critical of their district's professional development offerings. In particular, they discussed the lack of opportunities to look at the intersection of English language learning and special education.

Chapman College, according to Ann, prepared her to “know more than the average teacher in [her] building about what they tell you to do, not to do [for ELLs].” She described Chapman College's program as “very, very strong compared to a lot of other places and the other people I've spoken to - especially in the amount of field work you have and all your practicums.” Ann went on to say that she had two practicum experiences in urban schools, one in a suburban school and one in a private school. However beneficial, Ann argued that average teachers are not prepared to teach in urban schools. She said, “I don't think any teacher based on the coursework they receive to get a license is prepared to teach in an urban school, that's for sure... the average teacher is not prepared to teach in an urban school.”

Rita echoed Ann's sentiments about her time at Chapman College. She said, “I have come from a great training program at [Chapman College]... There's a real program in place, there's a general understanding of students, of student learning and development and informed teachers.” According to Rita, if her school district takes necessary steps to better support the education of LDS, positive changes may happen. She said, “I think the more that I educate myself, the more that the district performs professional development, that it will have changes.”

Troy recommended that teachers be “properly trained through sufficient coursework, not just quick mandated PDs by a district... even making [the study of LDS and special education] a branch of the field of education that people could go to really



focused on, even at [Chapman College].” He continued, “It has to be [more than just passing a certification test] – so that you’re actually putting people who can adequately address the needs of [LDS] in classrooms.” Further, Troy argued that there needs to be “English language support, proper English language support, not somebody has no idea – passing a test and being deemed eligible.”

Teachers, in general, commented that there were few, if any, professional development opportunities about educating LDS. And, even fewer opportunities to examine LDS who may be eligible for special education services were available. Lauren, for example, described her professional development as “focused on instruction for our students with autism or instruction for students with learning disabilities, but not really students who speak English as a second language. I’ve never seen that as a focus for our professional development.”

Troy spoke about the future; he said, “The make-up of the kids that are going to be sitting in front of teachers in the next decade or two is going to change drastically.” He described his individual needs and made recommendations about teachers’ professional, inservice training. He said,

Even a teacher like myself who has now an ELL certification – I would love more – being able to have some additional coursework and things that. I don’t know when the time would be for that, but to even build it into district professional development, to have more differentiated professional development so that a teacher could go take a course at [an area university] or, just get more knowledgeable about strategies and techniques.

As stated earlier, six teachers said they did not know about or have access to PD about LDS and special education. In response, Troy and Rita argued for an increase of specific teacher training in this area, both for preservice and inservice teachers. Ann explained that while she thought coursework in this area was necessary, however, no amount of coursework would effectively prepare teachers to educate students in urban schools.

Teachers' thoughts about professional practice, including collaboration, assessment, PD, and training, are evident within the data. The teachers in the study that act collaboratively in their environments were the same five teachers using RTI in their schools. These teachers feel "safe," and surrounded by "helpful, supportive, collegial" colleagues. On the other hand, the other four teachers think their school cultures do not foster collaborative environments. Some teachers thought that their students are assessed too frequently, including LDS who take state mandated tests under duress. After acknowledging her lack of background in special education, one teacher observed that said she did not know how special education assessments could be meaningful or effective for LDS. Teachers overwhelmingly thought there was not enough PD or training opportunities to examine LDS and special education.

*Special Education: Prereferral Process.* Within the interview, teachers discussed what they thought about the effectiveness of the prereferral processes in their schools. In addition, teachers were asked whether or not they felt the process identified "appropriate" students to receive special education services. Teachers frequently talked about their interactions with colleagues, the political undertow of the process, and the pace when making eligibility determinations.

Lauren and Megan, both working in schools implementing RTI, reported that the prereferral teams were effective. Lauren said,

I do feel it is effective... I greatly benefit from bringing a child to [the prereferral team]. I like that it's a bunch of different teachers... it's pretty open in terms of what people are suggesting. No one is really judging your instruction, they're just simply giving feedback on what you could try. And you leave there with that refreshed feeling of, "Okay, I can try this and this and this."

Megan, too, reported feeling supported by the team. She said, "I think it is [effective] because I've noticed a lot of times that [the prereferral team] will meet with you more than once, so you can try things and then come back." Leigh discussed the strengths and weaknesses of the prereferral process. She said,

I think there are pros and cons to it. I think that [the prereferral team] does cut down on the number of referrals to special education testing, which is good. I mean, obviously you don't want, you can't put every kid on an IEP and you shouldn't. But, I think there are cases where it works well and there are cases where it doesn't, but I think that's true with most of the processes that we do go through.

Marie explained her principal's role in the prereferral process, saying, "You must talk to [the principal] before you fill out a form on a child." This, according to Marie, initiates the process. When asked about the principal's rationale, Marie answered, "she doesn't have a lot of rationale sometimes. I'm not really sure why to be completely honest. I think she doesn't want to have a meeting on the kid if she doesn't think it's necessary. I'm honestly not sure."

Troy described his prereferral team, initially, as “sort of like a place for teachers to, it was sort of turning into a dumping ground,” but now teachers have “tried to make [the prereferral team] [problem-solving in nature].” He explained that he wanted to have “a problem-solving meeting earlier on in the process as soon as it’s brought up as a concern by the teachers.” But, in terms of the effectiveness of the prereferral and referral processes, Troy’s description follows:

I also think it’s sort of that dumping ground mentality of – if a kid’s just, you can’t figure him out this is a place where you can sort of just like put the kid – to say, well I can’t do anything else so they must, they must have a disability.

The pace of making eligibility decisions was a concern for some teachers. Leigh, for example, provided her rationale of why the prereferral process is different depending on the grade level. She argued,

I think in the younger grades I think it works really well. I think a lot of times for the younger grades it’s the first time that the student has been identified as struggling or, there are those students that just need some more intensive intervention and then it clicks for them and then they’re successful. I think at the fourth grade level it’s a little bit more frustrating because I think the gap gets bigger as they get older.

She went on to provide an example of one of her students who was struggling with phonics.

When you’re coming into fourth grade missing those skills, all of the comprehension strategies in the world that I’m doing my mini-lessons on are not going to fix those phonics gaps because I’m not teaching in fourth grade short

vowel, long vowel. I modified spelling and did everything that I could but, he needed intensive phonics instruction on a consistent basis. And I think then when your monitoring for six weeks, does the intervention make that connection for him? You're missing valuable time when that intensive instruction could be taking place.

Leigh suggested a "fast-track" system, she discussed with her colleagues rationalizing, "If there are some really significant problems that we're seeing, monitoring for six weeks for some interventions is not going to fix those gaps. Especially if the student's been on a watch list for several years or something like that."

Teachers' perceptions of the prereferral process in their schools varied. While a few teachers, those in schools using RTI, thought their process was effective, others reported school processes to be complex. Administrative policy, pace, age of students, and willingness of teachers were reported to be influential factors in the prereferral process.

*Special Education: Referral to special education.* Teachers discussed the effectiveness of the referral process, often as an extension of the prereferral process. Two teachers focused on the paperwork involved, while four others discussed their perceptions around the process's effectiveness. Ann explained that teachers have a lot of work to do, including paperwork noting that "[colleagues] don't even bother [to complete a referral] because it is a lot of work for the teacher - all that paperwork that we're filling out" emphasizing that because teachers are responsible for "so many things" that they "probably don't even bother." Rita explained that although she does complete the necessary paperwork for her LDS, "somehow the paperwork seems to get misplaced."

In terms of identifying appropriate students for special education services, Marie explained,

I think the right children, I think we find the kids who need the special education.

We, for the most part, make sure kids who don't need to go through all that don't have to go through all that. You know, we're not testing a kid who really just needed that extra support.

Troy and Josephine, urban teachers in schools not using RTI, described their perceptions of the effectiveness of the referral process. Troy said, "I feel like it could be more effective... But it's, I mean, for what we have, I guess it works." Similarly, Josephine said, "It doesn't seem like it's very effective, but I don't know what an alternative would be." Collectively, teachers reported varying levels of effectiveness – a few said they thought they "find the right kids who need the special education," while others felt it to be largely ineffective.

*Special Education: Special education decisions for LDS.* When teachers are trying to make eligibility decisions for and about LDS, they explained that a multitude of factors are involved, including learning English, language skills, and time. Teachers in the study were asked if they thought the decisions were the same or different for monolingual students. Aside from Rachel, a bilingual teacher, and Lauren who teaches in a rural district, the teachers reported that they thought eligibility decisions were different for LDS. With respect to learning English, Marie explained, "I think that for kids who speak another language at home it often takes longer [to be referred to special education] because a lot of it's thought just to be the language and as they develop more English then they will, then they'll just progress across the board." Josephine argued that

decisions made for LDS were “totally different” observing that categorizing monolingual students was easier noting, “[if a] kid grew up with an educated mom, lived in [urban center] their whole life, only has this one language – it’s like you can put them in a bubble. Whereas, [linguistically diverse] kids you can’t really, there’s so many different overlapping bubbles.” Leigh wished “you could put [LDS] on the ‘fast track’ kind of a thing [to be referred to special education] because, if they’re struggling, if they’re sitting there and they’re not grasping most of what’s going on in the classroom, because they don’t have the language skills.” She commented that the current process requires progress monitoring for six weeks and that “if you’re monitoring [LDS] for six weeks with interventions that aren’t addressing the root of the problem, then I think you’re missing a lot of the time to make meaningful progress.” Rita (who reported that lost paperwork was problematic) described her LDS as being in her self-contained classroom for consecutive years, and echoed Leigh’s concern about loss of appropriate instruction. “[Students] can be in my newcomers program for four, five years... and those children tend to have learning disabilities or something going on as well. And they’ve just sat there and they go through the program.” Troy described his dichotomous view of special education eligibility decisions:

There are two tracks. It’s general and working with struggling students, or special education. There’s no sort of in between. I think what happens a lot of times is the kids that are in that in between are either pushed into staying in general education without any sort of interventions or anything and fall through the cracks, or they perhaps erroneously get put into special education because, the dumping ground thing, nothing else has worked, so they must be special education...

Rachel reported that since all her students are bilingual, the referral process is the same for all students. And, if her students struggled in both languages it would provide evidence to move through the referral process. Lauren explained that she did not know if there were differences in determining eligibility, because her experience was only with monolingual students.

Teachers in this study have varied thinking about the prereferral and referral process as well as special education eligibility decisions made for and about LDS. In general, all teachers described the referral process and commented on the factors contributing to the effectiveness of the process, including collegiality, the school's political context, and the pace of the process. Teachers thought the process of determining eligibility to be different for LDS, due to differences in language development, English language skills, and acquisition time. In sum, there was variation across what teachers thought about special education practice.

*Summary.* Results from the interviews identified four themes in the third domain (THINK): (a) language learning; (b) perceptions; (c) professional practice; and, (d) special education practice. This section reported results about what teachers think about: native language instruction; perceptions about SLPs, ELL teachers, families, and the integration of LDS with peers; collaboration, assessment, PD and teacher training; prereferral and referral processes to special education, and special education decisions for LDS.

While the previous domains, what teachers say they know and do, reflects a fair amount of agreement among teachers, there is great variation in this domain, what teachers think. In addition to having great variation, it is important to note what is



missing from the data in this domain. All teachers responded to direct questions about native language instruction and the availability of PD about LDS and special education. However, the rest of data reported in this domain were derived indirectly throughout the interview. So, while some teachers' thinking is documented, others are not. It begs the question, are the results documented here incomplete, or how much and in what ways are teachers surveyed actively thinking about the aforementioned areas?

To glean teachers' thoughts, direct questions were asked about native language instruction and PD. Teachers' opinions of native language instruction ran the gamut – those who supported it unconditionally, others who privileged English-only instruction, and still others who vacillated between the benefits and drawbacks, never really taking a stand. And, in general, teachers reported limited PD available to learn more about the intersection of LDS and special education.

The teachers interviewed had some specific perceptions of their colleagues, students, and their students' families. The majority of teachers positively discussed their ELL teacher during the interview but mentioned limited contact. Two teachers actively discussed the SLPs in their buildings and perceived them as resources. One teacher specifically mentioned that families added value to students' education while four others, gave examples of how families served as a barrier.

Like opinions of native language instruction, teachers' perceptions of their professional and special education practice differed. Eight teachers' thinking about collaboration in their schools varied widely. In addition, teachers' perceptions about the pre- and referral process ranged in terms of effectiveness and political contexts. As reported earlier, two teachers in the study had referred at least one LDS for special

education services. These two teachers, Rita and Ann, and five others said that they thought eligibility decisions were different for LDS.

### *Chapter Summary*

This chapter reported the qualitative data gathered throughout this study. Specifically, it focused on the three domains generated when the data were analyzed. The first domain – KNOW – included three themes: (a) language, (b) professional practice; and, (c) special education practice. The second domain – DO – included the following four themes: (a) general assessment practices; (b) instruction; (c) professional practice; and, (d) special education practice. The third domain – THINK – included the following four themes: (a) language; (b) perceptions; (c) professional practice; and, (d) special education practice. Following the Sequential Explanatory Design, the next chapter will describe the findings across all data sources, collectively examining the corpus of data.

## CHAPTER SIX: COMBINED FINDINGS, LIMITATIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter describes the combined findings and limitations of this study as well as implications and future research recommendations. The quantitative and qualitative data were examined sequentially and then collectively. The first section of this chapter reveals the findings from all data and reports across three contexts: language, special education, and professional practice. The second section describes the limitations of this study, the third section discusses implications, and the fourth section provides future policy, practice, and research recommendations.

### Combined Findings

Chapter 4 reported results on the quantitative results, and Chapter 5 reported results of the qualitative results. While data from each section revealed important information about teacher attitudes, coursework, and practice, examining the corpus of data gave deeper understanding of the answers to this study's research questions. In particular, the collective examination of data allowed for a greater understanding of the relationships between teachers' practices, language attitudes, and teacher education coursework as well as the specific practices of a subsample ( $N=9$ ) of elementary teachers. This section provides descriptive results from the subsample. Then, it discusses what teachers say they THINK, what teachers say they KNOW, and what teachers say they DO across three contexts: language, special education, and professional practice. Further, this section makes connections between the combined results and the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and crystallizes data reported in Chapters 4 and 5.

### *Subsample's Descriptive Results*

After interviewing the subsample of participants, it was important to reexamine the subsamples' school context and teacher education background (See Table 6.1). Four of the nine teachers taught in urban schools, four taught in suburban schools, and one teacher taught in a rural district. Five of the nine teachers interviewed took language coursework and one teacher took special education coursework at Chapman College. Eight of the teachers in the subsample received undergraduate degrees and five teachers earned graduate degrees. The selected teachers were moderately representative of the larger sample.

Table 6.1

#### *Subsamples' School Context & Teacher Education*

Description	Group ( <i>N</i> =69)	Subsample ( <i>N</i> =9)
<b>School setting</b>		
Urban	28	4
Suburban	38	4
Rural	3	1
<b>Teacher Education Background</b>		
Language Coursework	16	5
Special Education Coursework	17	1
Undergraduate Degree	36	8
Graduate Degree	33	5

Then, it was important to examine the subsample participants' individual scores on the LATS, 3YO-Desirable, and RJ scale score. Since results from 3YO-SJ were not found to be significant with the larger sample, it was not used in the collective analyses. The item analysis for the LATS is reported in Table 6.2, which includes the group and subsample participants' mean scores. As reported in Chapter 4, the sample mean LATS score was 28.00 (SD=6.6), revealing that on average, teachers in the study reported

“moderate positive” attitudes toward language and language diversity. The subsample reported a lower mean score ( $\bar{x}$ =25.22; SD=8.89), indicating they had more positive language attitudes than the larger sample, but were still in the “moderate positive” range on the Language Diversity Commitment Continuum. The mean of the sample minus the subsample was 28.42; the subsample’s mean was not statistically significantly different from the larger sample. Further, there was more variability in the subsamples’ LATS scores than within in the larger sample.

Table 6.2

*LATS Item Analysis – Subsample*

Item	Group Mean (SD) (N=69)	Subsample Mean (SD) (N=9)
Item 1: To be considered American, one should speak English.	2.46 (1.1)	1.67 (0.50)
Item 2: I would support the government spending additional money to provide better programs for linguistic-minority students in public schools.	1.74 (0.69)	1.56 (0.73)
Item 3: Parents of non- or limited-English-proficient students should be counseled to speak English with their children whenever possible.	2.64 (1.21)	2.44 (1.74)
Item 4: It is important that people in the U.S. learn a language in addition to English.*	1.87 (0.71)	1.78 (0.97)
Item 5: It is unreasonable to expect a regular classroom teacher to teach a child who does not speak English.	2.13 (0.91)	2.11 (1.45)
Item 6: The rapid learning of English should be a priority for non-English-proficient or limited-English-proficient students even if it means they lose the ability to speak their native language.	2.13 (0.91)	2.44 (1.13)
Item 7: Local and state governments should require that all government business (including voting) be conducted only in English.	2.19 (1.0)	2.11 (1.17)
Item 8: Having a non- or limited-English-proficient student in the classroom is detrimental to the learning of the other students.	1.51 (0.59)	1.44 (0.53)

Item 9: Regular-classroom teachers should be required to receive pre-service or in-service training to be prepared to meet the needs of linguistic minorities.*	1.49 (0.76)	1.22 (0.44)
Item 10: Most non- and limited-English-proficient children are not motivated to learn English.	1.49 (0.63)	1.33 (0.50)
Item 11: At school, the learning of the English language by non- or limited-English-proficient children should take precedence over learning subject matter.	2.49 (1.05)	2.22 (0.67)
Item 12: English should be the official language of the United States.	3.74 (0.99)	3.22 (1.79)
Item 13: Non- and limited-English-proficient students often use unjustified claims of discrimination as an excuse for not doing well in school.	3.74 (0.99)	1.67 (0.71)
Total LATS score	28.00 (6.6) Moderate Positive	25.22 (8.89) Moderate Positive

Note. \*Indicates reverse coding

The item analysis for the 3YO-Desirable is reported in Table 6.3, which includes the group and subsample's mean scores. As reported in Chapter 4, the sample mean 3YO-Desirable score was 28.94 (SD=2.83). On average teachers in the study reported "strong engagement" in desirable practices. The subsample reported similar scores ( $x=28.22$ ) within the "strong engagement" range and with slightly more variability (SD=3.77). The mean of the sample minus the subsample was 29.05; the subsample's mean was not statistically significantly different from the larger sample. It is important to note that the entire subsample reported "often" *reflecting on and improving my teaching performance* (Item 28). The subsample's identical responses suggest that all of the participants report that they are reflective. However, as reported earlier, the participants' RJ scores varied. When asked to self-report, participants rate their practices in greater frequency than when evaluated objectively using the RJ protocol.

Table 6.3

*3YO – Desirable Practice Item Analysis – Subsample*

Item	Group Mean (SD) (N=69)	Subsample Mean (SD) (N=9)
Item 28: reflecting on and improving my teaching performance.*	3.89 (0.35)	4.0 (0.0)
Item 29: making decisions about teaching based on classroom evidence.*	3.90 (0.29)	3.89 (0.33)
Item 31: understanding educational plans and providing appropriate accommodations for students with special needs in my classroom.*	3.69 (0.49)	3.67 (0.71)
Item 32: making teaching decisions based on the results of pupil assessments.*	3.74 (0.56)	3.67 (0.50)
Item 34: understanding the concepts, principals, and reasoning methods of the subject areas I teach.*	3.72 (0.55)	3.22 (0.97)
Item 35: modifying lessons for students from diverse racial/ethnic/cultural/linguistic backgrounds.*	3.3 (0.76)	3.00 (0.86)
Item 36: using differentiated instruction to enhance student learning.*	3.87 (0.42)	3.78 (0.67)
Item 37: integrating issues of social justice into my curriculum.	3.23 (0.88)	3.0 (1.0)
Total 3YO-Desirable score	28.94 (2.83) Strong Engagement	28.22 (3.77) Strong Engagement

Note. \*indicates reverse coding

To determine patterns within the data, the subsample's scores were examined individually (See Table 6.4). At this stage of the data analyses, patterns across and within the RJ scores (based on the case study dilemma), LATS and 3YO-Desirable standard scores were investigated. While the RJ displayed reasonable variability, the self-reported scores from the LATS and 3YO-Desirable had little variability. Aside from the statistically significant positive relationship between participants' LATS scores and 3YO-Desirable scores, there were no significant patterns with RJ scores and the LATS and/or 3YO-Desirable scores. This suggests that the RJ score, or teacher's level of reflective judgment, was not directly connected with their language attitude or reported use of

desirable practices. The weak, but significant correlation between teachers' language attitudes and desirable practices was confirmed through this process and furthered by the finding that RJ scores did not correlate with the survey data. Even though there was a small subsample ( $N=9$ ), post-hoc analyses were used to determine any correlations between RJ and the surveys. Post-hoc correlation analyses identified no significant correlation between RJ and LATS ( $r=-.459$ ) or RJ and 3YO-Desirable ( $r=-.001$ ). As stated earlier, these results suggest there are differences in data reported by teachers and those gathered by researchers.

Table 6.4

*Individual Scores – Subsample*

Participant	Scores		
	Reflective Judgment	LATS (SS)	3YO-Desirable (SS)
Troy	Pre-reflective 2.5	Neutral 0.91	Strong Engagement -0.33
Megan	Pre-reflective 2.5	Moderate Positive 0.15	Strong Engagement 0.02
Josephine	Pre-reflective 3.0	Strong Positive -1.82	Moderate Engagement -0.69
Marie	Pre-reflective 3.0	Moderate Positive 0.00	Strong Engagement 0.02
Lauren	Quasi-reflective 4.5	Neutral 1.67	Strong Engagement 0.73
Leigh	Quasi-reflective 5.0	Moderate Positive 0.15	Strong Engagement 0.02
Ann	Quasi-reflective 5.5	Moderate Positive -0.45	Neutral -3.51
Rita	Quasi-reflective 6.0	Strong Positive -2.12	Strong Engagement 1.08
Rachel	Reflective 6.5	Strong Positive -2.12	Strong Engagement 0.37



After reviewing data about what teachers say they KNOW, THINK, and DO, three distinct contexts emerged: language, special education, and professional practice. This next portion of the combined findings describes the results of the study within these three contexts.

### *Language*

In general, the LATS scores reported for the nine participants portray overall attitudes about language. However, the examination of LATS scores in conjunction with participants' responses to interview questions about language, built more robust descriptions of teachers' language attitudes and practices. Those teachers with more negative attitudes towards language and language diversity responded similarly within their interview. In general, teachers who did not take language coursework at Chapman College had more negative attitudes toward language (See Figure 6.1). Interview data confirmed the quantitative findings that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between language attitudes and desirable practice. For example, Rachel displayed her strong positive language attitude, explaining, "[Native language instruction is] essential to complete really meaningful literacy development." Then, when asked how she designed instruction to meet students' linguistic needs, she responded, "in a million ways." Rachel reported using a variety of strategies, such as teacher modeling and conferencing with students. Marie, who had a moderate positive language attitude, reported, "I don't really assess [students'] language skills that much." While she had strong engagement on the 3YO-Desirable scale, her interview data inconsistently reported desirable practices. This could mean that what Marie says she does and what she actually does is different.

Figure 6.1

*Language Coursework Predictive of Positive Language Attitude**What Teachers Say They KNOW*

Within their interviews, four participants discussed language policies, but their explanations and interpretations lacked depth. For example, the suburban teachers discussed district language-screening forms used to determine if language evaluations were appropriate. Marie reported, “[parents] fill out forms about how much they speak English and how their other language, depending on the ratio, it’s decided if they’re tested for ELL support.” Half of the teachers interviewed knew native language assessment was required, but were not sure if or how it was conducted. For example, Megan reported, “I think [LDS] are allowed to be tested in their native... I’m not 100 percent sure, but I thought that there has to be something available in their native language.” Beyond the district level, three teachers showed implicit understanding of Question 2 and the rest of the participants needed explanation. Lauren, for example, asked for an explanation of Question 2. Troy and Megan explained that they were not teaching prior to Question 2, but could not describe the impact of Question 2. While results from the LATS provided insight into participants’ attitudes, it did not measure their knowledge about language. Aside from teachers in bilingual or SEI programs, interview data showed that participants’ knowledge and understanding about language

policy were minimal. This suggests that their individual teacher education experience, particularly coursework in language, impact teacher's knowledge about language and LDS.

### *What Teachers THINK*

The LATS item analysis revealed some interesting patterns about language attitudes and practice. While Josephine (SS=-1.82), Rita (SS=-2.12), Ann (SS=-0.45), and Rachel (SS=-2.12) LATS scores were positive, Marie (SS=0.0), Megan (SS=0.0), and Leigh (SS=0.15) had neutral scores. In contrast, Lauren (SS=1.67) and Troy (SS=0.91) reported more negative scores. Lauren, Megan, and Troy reported that they “strongly agree” or “agree” to Item 3 (*Parents of non- or limited-English-proficient students should be counseled to speak English with their children whenever possible.*) and Item 12 (*English should be the official language of the United States.*) Both questions focus on the power of knowing and speaking English. These three participants agreed that English is the knowledge of power. While Marie “strongly disagreed” with Item 3, she “strongly agreed” with Item 12. The remaining participants reported that they “strongly disagree” or “disagree” with Items 3 and 12.

Lauren, Megan, Troy, and Marie's responses were corroborated within the interview data. When asked their opinion of native language instruction, Marie, Megan, and Troy said they were not sure how it could be implemented. While Megan agreed that native language instruction was valuable, Troy and Marie rejected the idea, and Lauren did not take a stance. In contrast, Rita, Rachel, Josephine, and Ann agreed that native language instruction was valuable in particular circumstances, highlighting the benefits for LDS, suggesting that they warranted and justified beliefs about language instruction

based on integration of coursework, attitudes, and experience and generated a stance or worldview based on this integration.

### *What Teachers Say They DO*

Four of the five participants who reported that they assessed language skills took language coursework at Chapman College. Troy, who did not take language coursework, explained that he used the MELA-O to assess language. Teachers who assessed language examined both oral and written language, giving specific examples of each in their interviews. Josephine, for example, reported using “conversational kind of interaction in the classroom [to] give me a baseline if there are any concerns there.” In contrast, Marie reported that she did not assess language and instead outsourced this task to the SLP in her building.

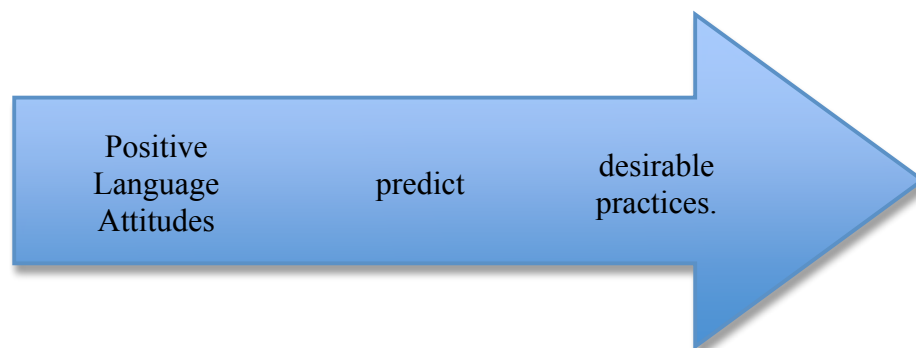
Teachers in school settings that supported language instruction, like Rachel and Josephine, discussed their instructional strategies implicitly, referring to desirable practices like making accommodations and using visuals. This may imply that discussions in this context do not require explicit conversation about strategies. For example, Rachel said, “I treat the entire class as if they were learning in a second language, and at the same time I teach regular kindergarten.” Megan, who took language coursework, reported using specific language objectives when teaching her students, saying: “I try to have a language objective with every lesson what we do.” Implicit in Megan’s response of “trying” is that she is may not be willing to commit to saying she actually does integrate language objectives. Teachers in other settings reported using similar instructional methods for all students, regardless of students’ linguistic diversity. These data support the quantitative results that link positive language attitudes with

desirable practices, in particular the assessment of students' language skills and use of specific instructional strategies for LDS. In other words, if teachers' have more positive attitudes about language they are going to be more willing to expand their instructional and assessment repertoire.

Collectively, the quantitative and qualitative results work to confirm general findings about what teachers KNOW, DO, and THINK about language. Teachers' attitudes about language and language diversity inform and guide their instructional practices (See Figure 6.2). Participants with deeper knowledge about language policy and more positive attitudes about language, typically students who took language coursework, were the same participants who taught in urban schools or within language contexts.

Figure 6.2

*Language and Practice*



*Special Education*

Interview and 3YO-Desirable Survey data provide insight into what teachers KNOW, THINK, and DO about special education. Examining these data together allows for a richer understanding of how teachers perceive their roles, how and if teachers participate in special education processes, how teachers perceive the effectiveness and

appropriateness of these processes, and what type of support teachers receive. While only one teacher in the subsample took special education coursework at Chapman College, interview and survey data confirm that participants reported having a general understanding of the referral process (The interview protocol did not ask participants about their own comfort with the process.), but all teachers reported needing specific support to help them make informed instructional and referral decisions about and for LDS.

#### *What Teachers Say They KNOW*

The entire subsample reported that they understood the referral process in their schools and districts. While policies differed slightly school-to-school, all participants could verbalize the steps of the referral process. Teachers who worked in schools with a pre-referral process also described this with ease. Within the interview, teachers were asked to describe the process, but the question did not ask about particular learners, like LDS. So, teachers' reported understanding is based on their interpretations or experiences.

Seven teachers reported on the 3YO-Desirable Survey that they “often” *understand educational plans and provide appropriate accommodations for students with special needs in my classroom* (Item 31). Because this item has two parts, it is difficult to discern whether or not participants responded to the first, second, or both part(s) of the question. In contrast, Ann reported “rarely,” and Troy reported “sometimes,” yet he was the only one who took special education coursework. General knowledge about the special education referral process is evident throughout the participants' survey data as

well as in one question on the 3YO-Desirable. This suggests that teachers know cursory information about the special education process, and/or know that they *should* know.

### *What Teachers Say They DO*

In general, teachers in the subsample reported making accommodations for students and using differentiated instruction. While making accommodations and using differentiated instruction is appropriate for all students, they are frequently used and almost always associated with special education. Besides Ann, teachers reported “often” *using differentiated instruction to enhance student learning* (Item 36) on the 3YO-Desirable Survey. Since there were specific questions about instructional practices for students with special education needs, the interview data included only a few examples.

In addition to making accommodations and using differentiated instruction six teachers reported participating in the pre-referral process. All of the teachers in schools that implemented RTI participated in this process as well as one other teacher. Two teachers, Ann and Rita, referred at least one LDS to special education during their tenure.

Based on Item 35 from the 3YO-Desirable Study, eight teachers reported that they “sometimes” or “often” *modify lessons for students from diverse racial/ethnic/cultural/linguistic backgrounds*. To modify a lesson is to change the content, something that can be done within special education to meet the individual needs of students. It is unclear whether or not teachers considered modifying lessons for LDS as part of this question or, if teachers think accommodations are synonymous to modifications. Further, it is difficult to ascertain if “modify” is used here to discuss special education instruction, or instruction for all students.

Only a few interview and survey questions directly addressed teachers' actions with regard to special education. All participants educated students who received special education services and the majority of teachers participated in the pre- or referral process. While only one member of the subsample (Troy) took coursework in special education, the others completed at least one introductory special education course during their time at Chapman College.

### *What Teachers THINK*

Rachel and Lauren, based on their school contexts, reported that the referral process was the same for all students; Rachel taught in a bilingual context and Lauren in a rural school with no contact with LDS. The remaining seven participants maintained that the referral process, including determining eligibility for special education, was different for LDS, compared to their monolingual peers.

These data contradict what teachers say they DO. Six teachers reported participating in the pre-referral process, but did not note the student's linguistic background. Only two teachers actually referred a LDS for special education services. But, seven of the nine teachers reported that the referral process for LDS was different. If only two teachers had actually referred a LDS, then how would the other five teachers know if the process was the same or different for LDS? This may be a limitation of self-report data as well as a realistic portrayal of what teachers think they should do, what they know they should do, and what they actually do.

Six teachers reported that they did not know about or have access to PD about LDS and special education, two teachers had a one-time conversation about the topic, and one teacher created her own PLC to investigate issues around referring LDS to special



education. Again, these data create concern. Teachers reported not having any PD to help them make special education eligibility decisions for LDS and the majority said they had little contact with their ESL teacher. Without language coursework or the support of a second language acquisition expert, like an ESL teacher, coupled with a lack of PD, what *do* teachers think about if or when a LDS is referred to special education?

### *Professional Practice*

Evidence of teachers' professional practice is found within the 3YO-Desirable Survey, interview, and RJ data. The results of the 3YO-Desirable survey were positively skewed, both for the larger sample and the subsample. While the LATS measured attitudes about language and language diversity, the 3YO-Desirable survey asked about teachers' desirable practices. Teachers' self-reported scores were positive, which included questions about decision-making, assessment, and reflection. Interview data also show evidence about decision-making as well as collaboration and assessment practices. The RJ scores showed the variability of reflective judgment among the subsample, which suggests that teachers in the study had wide ranging levels of reflective judgment which did not necessarily match with their self-reported data.

On the 3YO-Desirable Survey, all of the participants except for Rita and Ann scored within 1 SD of the mean. Rita's standard score (SS=1.08) was higher, while Ann's standard score (-3.51) was lower. This means that Rita reported being more likely to engage in desirable practices, while Ann did not.

Ann's scores on the 3YO-Desirable are in stark contrast to her peers. More frequently, she reported "rarely" or "never" participating in these practices. Ann was the only teacher in the subsample who taught outside of the state and her interview included

candid descriptions of school policy, instruction, and schooling in urban districts. While Ann took language coursework and reported that her teacher preparation at Chapman College was “very, very strong compared to a lot of other places,” she was vehement that “the average teacher is not prepared to teach in an urban school.” These data suggest that her quasi-reflective judgment contributed to her responses; Ann’s level of reflective judgment allowed her to report openly about her own practice. Ann’s scores are important to keep in mind while reviewing these findings, because they may call into question the validity of measures (See upcoming Limitations section).

### *Decision-Making*

All participants “often” or “sometimes” *make decisions about teaching based on classroom evidence* (Item 29) and *make teaching decisions based on the results of pupil assessments* (Item 32). In fact, eight of nine participants responded “often” to Item 29, which means that participants overwhelmingly reported using evidence to make decisions. However, this survey data conflict with interview data. During their interviews, some participants reported making decisions based on evidence (Item 32) and using differentiated instruction (Item 36), but offered few examples. Limited evidence was offered to support survey results of Item 35 (*modifying lessons for students from diverse racial/ethnic/cultural/linguistic backgrounds*); one participant discussed ways to modify lessons, but they were modifications to address learning differences, and one participant (Megan) reported making modifications, but when she described her actions, she was actually creating accommodations.

### *Assessment*

Six participants reported “often” and three reported “sometimes” *making teaching decisions based on the results of pupil assessments* (Item 32). The majority of participants reported using assessment to drive instruction, yet these results were not corroborated in the interview data. Teachers were asked, “*In what ways do you assess your students?*” and “*Do you in/formally assess your students’ language skills? If so, how?*” Teachers’ responses to these questions about assessment were not linked explicitly to how the results of assessments were or were not connected to decision-making. Troy was the only participant who reported using assessment results to inform instruction. These results suggest that when surveyed, teachers report that assessment is integrally connected to their practice, but when probed in the interview, teachers did not or could not explain how they linked assessment to practice.

### *Collaboration*

Data about collaboration were evident in responses to interview questions. Of the five teachers in this study who worked in schools implementing RTI, four reported positive, collaborative working environments. This collaboration may be linked to the structures embedded within a typical RTI model, where teachers, SLPs, ELL teachers, paraprofessionals, and special educators work together to educate students, using flexible grouping, small group instruction, and evidence-based strategy instruction. However, RTI models vary from school to school (See Fuchs & Fuchs, 2006). Or, this (lack of) collaboration may be linked to structures inherent to each particular school.

With regards to collaborating with colleagues, Lauren, Megan, and Troy reported limited access to the ELL teacher in their schools. For Lauren and Megan, their RTI models must not actively include their ELL teacher. They both reported low incidence of

LDS in their building, which may have contributed to their perceptions that the ELL teacher was difficult to access. Even within their RTI models, Marie reported outsourcing her LDS who struggled to the SLP in her building, while Lauren outsourced struggling students to the Title One teacher. This provides evidence that even within a typical RTI model, teachers may still outsource their students to other colleagues. In fact, most suburban teachers with little contact with LDS reported that they would outsource students who were struggling.

Rachel provided evidence to support her belief that her bilingual context fostered collaboration, while both SEI teachers, Rita and Josephine, reported that their schools did not promote collaboration. Within the SEI environments, both teachers reported that the special and general educators did not work together. Rather, teachers in the school “passed the buck.” Regardless of whether or not they worked in RTI environments or if they outsourced their students, teachers in this study generally thought that ELL teachers had enormous caseloads with not enough time to serve LDS.

### *Reflection*

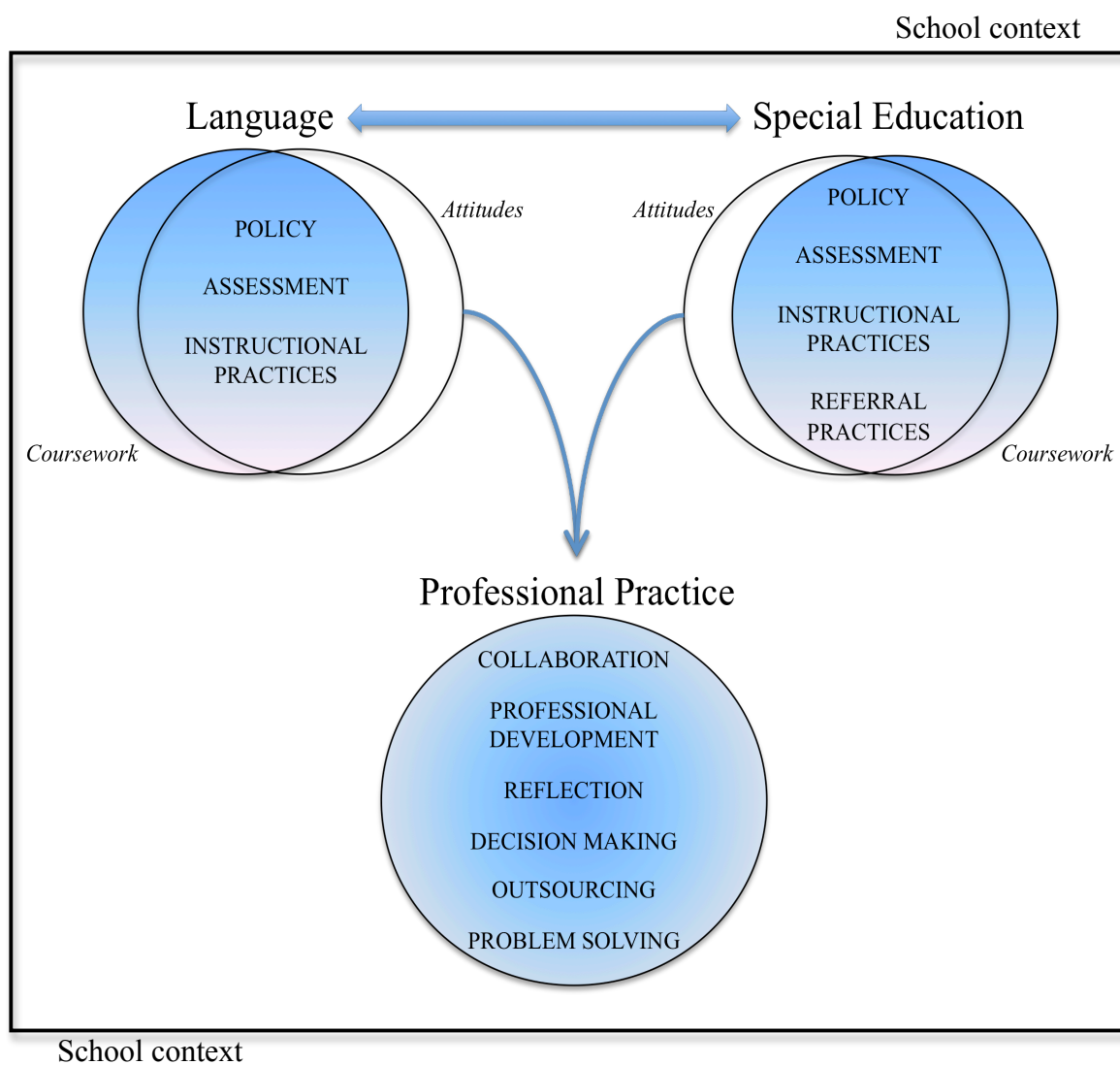
The entire subsample reported “often” *reflecting on and improving my teaching performance* (Item 28). All participants reported and believed that they reflected on their practice, yet there was variability across the RJ scores (See Table 6.4). For example, Megan’s response to the dilemma was 2.5, placing her in the Pre-Reflective Stage, and Rachel scored 6.5, placing her in the Reflective Stage. While Megan’s score was in contrast to her self-reported response to Item 28, Rachel’s score was in-line with her response on the 3YO-Desirable Survey. There were significant differences between participants’ responses to this item compared to the demonstration of reflective judgment,

revealed through their responses to the case study. Important to note is that this score is based on one dilemma, so RJ may change based on the dilemma, the teacher's school context, or other factors, which is consistent with research about responses to varying RJ dilemmas.

Results from this study suggest teachers' coursework and attitudes across two domains – language and special education – inform teachers' professional practice (See Figure 6.3). Relationships between teachers' attitudes and coursework inform their knowledge of language, including policy, assessment, and instructional practices. Similarly, teachers' attitudes and coursework inform their knowledge of special education, including policy, assessment, instructional practices, and referral practices. Collectively, both bodies of knowledge interact with each other and merge to inform and generate teachers' professional practice, including collaboration, professional development, reflection, decision making, outsourcing, and problem solving. All of these relationships are nested within the school or district context.

While there is a known relationship between knowledge, reflection, and practice, it is important to acknowledge that even if teachers know what to DO and what to THINK it does not necessarily lead to action or thinking within a “real” context. Even the most reflective teachers may not actually take action in context.

Figure 6.3

*Visual Representation of Findings**Implications**Language**Implications for Teacher Education*

This study shows that language coursework is correlated with teachers' attitudes about language. However, since participants were not surveyed prior to their language coursework, it is difficult to know if their attitudes about language were established prior

to completing this coursework. In addition, since language coursework is not required at Chapman College, those students who elected to take such coursework did so on their own accord. This, coupled with the exponential increase of LDS in schools (Aud et al., 2010; U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2009), should be compelling enough for teacher preparation programs to rethink the coursework they offer to support teachers who educate LDS. As deJong and Harper (2005) remind us, being a good teacher is simply not good enough. Chapman College offers certificate and minor programs, but all are self-selected. However, recent federal policy changes (e.g., see NCLB) require teachers to be “highly qualified” to teach LDS, making these requirements essential within teacher preparation programs. However, it is interesting to note that teachers who completed coursework, which correlated with positive attitudes, still did not demonstrated “action” based on these attitudes during these interviews.

Half of the subsample could only weakly identify language policies and half reported that they assessed language skills. If this subsample is truly representative of the larger sample, only half of Chapman College graduates understand relevant language policies, which affect their school context, the LDS they educate, and their personal, professional practice. Those teachers who identified specific strategy instruction for LDS were the same teachers who took language coursework. Because, according to the teachers, PD is largely unavailable, these particular skill sets were presumably acquired within their teacher education program.

According to Lucas and Grinberg (2008), adding a minor or certificate program to teacher education programs is believed to be most comprehensive of all the strategies offered in the literature, but teacher educators are warned that this type of structural

strategy takes time to implement, requiring extensive planning and change (e.g., Nevárez-La Torre et al., 2005). More importantly, it requires IHEs and teacher preparation programs housed within them to value what LDS bring to classrooms. This includes the training and preparation of faculty to support this instruction (Costa et al., 2005; Evans, Arnot-Hopffer, & Jurich, 2005; O'Hara & Pritchard, 2008). While there are additional ways to better prepare teachers to serve LDS, like adding a course (Valdés et al., 2005), infusing attention across the curriculum (Meskill, 2005), and collaboration across institutional boundaries (Gebhard et al., 2002), the results of this study support Lucas and Grinberg's (2008) argument that adding language coursework positively changes teacher education curriculum, to better prepare teachers to educate LDS.

Informing these recommended changes is a framework for preparing linguistically responsive teachers, both through practice and coursework, created by Lucas and Villegas (2010). To guide teacher educators' planning this recommended framework includes three orientation elements (1-3) and four types of language-related knowledge and skills elements (4-7). The seven elements are: (1) Sociolinguistic consciousness<sup>16</sup>; (2) Value for linguistic diversity; (3) Inclination to advocate for ELL students; (4) Learning about ELL students' language backgrounds, experiences, and proficiencies; (5) Identifying the language demands of classroom discourse and tasks; (6) Knowing and applying key principles of second language learning; and, (7) Scaffolding instruction to promote ELL students' learning. The aforementioned recommendations as part of the Lucas and Villegas (2010) framework will create a structure for teacher educators to begin to prepare all teachers to educate LDS.

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<sup>16</sup> Lucas and Villegas (2010) define "sociolinguistic consciousness" as "(1) an understanding that language and identity are strongly interconnected, and (2) an awareness of the sociopolitical dimensions of language use and language education" (p. 302-303).



### *Implications for Teachers*

Results from this study show that teachers with exposure to students with varied languages and linguistic abilities generally had more positive attitudes about language and linguistic diversity. In most cases, these were urban teachers and/or teachers who worked in bilingual or SEI classrooms. If teachers have a penchant for being surrounded by linguistic diversity, or if they are bilingual themselves, they may be more likely to work in urban schools and/or bilingual or SEI classrooms. Or, if teachers feel unprepared or do not want to work in urban schools and/or with LDS, they may be more likely to work schools with few LDS. Teachers' personal attitudes, knowledge, and practices contribute to where they choose to teach. Based on this study, teachers who had more positive language attitudes and used more desirable practices taught in urban contexts with linguistic diversity or in bilingual or SEI classrooms. It is recommended that pre-service and in-service teachers teach in urban schools and/or language classrooms so they may have experiences with LDS, which may, in turn, better inform their attitudes and practices.

### *Special Education*

#### *Implications for Teacher Education*

There are no federal guidelines or standards that traditional teacher preparation programs must follow, so IHEs follow state mandates. Since only 27 states reported requiring coursework in teaching students with disabilities for general education teachers (National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification, 2010), countless teachers are left to acquire knowledge and practices to educate students with disabilities on their own. Typical teacher preparation programs require one introductory

special education course, focusing on elements of an IEP and overviews of disabilities. In addition to examining teachers' attitudes toward special education (Shade & Stewart, 2001), specific skills like making accommodations and modifications as well as differentiating instruction must be explicitly taught to all pre-service teachers.

As shown in this study, teachers said they were actively engaged in particular professional practices that supported all students, but provided little evidence. It is unclear whether or not teachers did not have any evidence because they did not act on their beliefs, or, based on the nature of the self-report data impacted teachers' responses, or for other unknown reasons. Teachers reported they were making accommodations and modifications and delivering differentiated instruction on the 3YO-Desirable Survey, but there were only a few indications in the interview data that supported these reports. In addition, while teachers reported their thoughts and beliefs about referral and eligibility decisions for LDS, only a few had participated in the process. For example, eight teachers said referral decisions were different for LDS, but only two teachers had actually referred a LDS. The evidence they reported was second hand, based on what participants thought or heard from their colleagues.

The layers of complexity involved in referring a LDS to special education, including determining the LDS's academic performance in their native language and English, teachers' expectations and attitudes, the elapsed time of the LDS's schooling in the U.S., and the LDS's family history, cannot be left to a general educator with only one introductory course in special education (and perhaps limited language coursework). Instead, it is recommended that general education preparation programs require special education coursework that explicitly prepares teachers to gather essential information to

make informed referrals to special education, including the referrals of LDS. This coursework must include collaborative strategies for general educators to use with special educators and ELL teachers as well as an understanding of typical, atypical, and second language acquisition (e.g., Klingner & Geisler, 2008; Wong Fillmore & Snow, 2000). This practice of gathering professionals with particular expertise together to make informed decisions for LDS with a shared understanding of language acquisition is necessary. This study's results support previous research that recommended specific, integrated special education coursework (Yellin et al., 2003) and argued that inclusionary attitudes increase educational opportunities for all students (Bender, Vail, & Scott, 1995).

#### *Implications for Referral Practices*

The overrepresentation and underrepresentation of LDS in special education continues to be evident (Donovan & Cross, 2002). If general educators continue to graduate from IHEs who do not require coursework that address the complexity inherent in referring LDS to special education, issues of over- and underrepresentation may persist. In addition, if current practices of special educators and others who assess and make eligibility decisions about LDS are not examined, this situation will be exacerbated. While this study did not directly explore the race or linguistic abilities of the two LDS referred to special education, it did show that teachers believe eligibility decisions are different for LDS. On the one hand, this is positive, because it could mean decisions are made with the inclusion of a language specialist or ELL teacher, using assessments in the student's native language as well as other qualitative data (e.g., time in the U.S., prior schooling experiences, languages spoken at home, parental literacy levels, previous academic interventions). On the other hand, it could mean different decisions are being

made for LDS, without including all the previous data sources listed. Integral to the question of disproportionality continues to be the documented use of bias assessments for LDS (Waitoller et al., 2010). Therefore, coursework and teacher preparation would be remiss without including discussions about the use and research about the validity and reliability of biased assessments.

Klingner and Harry (2006) recommended collaborative problem solving through the use of pre-referral teams. Additionally, the implementation of RTI was recommended to support these pre-referral teams. Results from this study showed that four teachers in RTI schools reported more collaborative environments. While teachers perceived more collaboration, there is no way to link this collaboration with the referral practices of LDS to special education. Furthermore, only six of nine teachers reported participating in a pre-referral team, which was not necessarily to support a LDS. Like Klingner and Harry (2006), Limbos and Geva (2001) recommended RTI models to help support the pre-referral process. Since general and special educators have difficulty accurately assessing LDS (Klingner et al., 2008), the results of this study confirm previous recommendations to use pre-referral teams, like those integral to RTI, to support more collaborative and informed eligibility decisions.

### *Professional Practice*

#### *Implications for Teacher Education*

In order for pre-service teachers to know how to make effective instructional decisions, teacher education programs must teach how to gather and analyze multiple types of evidence (including data generated from informal and formal assessments) as well as understand the necessity of differentiated instruction (including making

accommodations) and how to implement such instruction. In a similar vein, teacher education programs must make an explicit link between gathering evidence and how such evidence must inform future instructional decisions. All teachers in this study, for example, answered positively to questions on a forced-response survey (3YO-Desirable) that asked about assessment. However, when interviewed, the same teachers generally supplied cursory and generalizations answers about their assessment practices, often repeating jargon and common phrases consistent with education “lingo.” Therefore, it is recommended that assessment practices continue to be integrated across content area curriculum.

Current teacher preparation programs that only require collaborative coursework for special educators send an institutional message to general educators – having these skills may be beneficial, but they are not required. On the other hand, collaborative course delivery models like Arthaud et al.’s (2007) benefited both pre-service teachers and general and special education faculty. Also, infusing special education coursework that highlighted collaborative partnerships between general and special educators (e.g., Ford, Pugach, & Otis-Wilborn, 2001) supported more collaboration among professional educators. It is recommended that both general and special educators take courses and have practicum experiences that support teachers as they learn to negotiate collaborative, professional relationships. Making these structural changes, however, requires increased time and willingness by faculty, students, and teacher preparation programs.

Teacher preparation includes more than just content and methods coursework. With regard to pre-service teachers’ reflection and reflective judgment, teacher educators must support teachers’ understanding of sociocultural theory and implications for their

professional practice. Teacher education programs must embrace Bartolomé's concepts of "ideological clarity," which asks teachers to evaluate their personal beliefs, attitudes and assumptions. In doing so, pre-service teachers examine their beliefs and compare them to the dominant socioeconomic and political ideals. Instead of our current culture of recognizing students by their deviances or differences (Crawford & Bartolomé, 2010), teacher educators can be better prepare pre-service teachers by guiding them through the complicated, but necessary process of examining their personal beliefs, views, and assumptions. The data from this study show teachers at varying levels of reflective judgment, but all perceived that they were reflective educators. This disparity provides further evidence that explicit work to examine pre-services teachers' levels of reflection and ways of change are necessary.

### *Implications for Schools*

While assessment is a vital component of teaching and learning, U.S. schools and policymakers are obsessed with data (Shirley & Hargreaves, 2006). And, the data of greatest obsession are derived from high-stakes testing. Discussions about high-stakes testing were documented with only one teacher in the study. The remaining participants reported using assessment, but did not connect their assessment practices with their instructional decision-making. While it was reassuring that participants did not just administer high-stakes testing, the types and methods of other kinds of assessment were not evident in the data. Schools should create teaching and learning environments that support the use of *both* summative and formative assessment to drive instructional practices. Gathering data about students' academic performances, attitudes, and experiences, will allow teachers to make more informed decisions about instruction and,

if needed, eligibility for special education services. If schools continue to focus on results of high-stakes testing, the value of on-going, qualitative assessment will continue to be minimized.

Building collaborative environments in elementary schools can encourage shared responsibility among professionals. While collaboration works best when it is voluntary (Friend & Cook, 2000), some current reform movements, like RTI, place collaborative, problem solving at their center. The majority of teachers in this study who worked in schools implementing RTI reported higher levels of collaboration than teachers in other schools. The shared responsibility inherent within RTI is not voluntary; all teachers within typical RTI models have shared responsibility for students. Like data from this study, there are promising data about teachers' perceptions about collaboration within RTI reform (e.g., Greenfield et al., 2010). However, it is important to acknowledge Hargreaves' (1994) warning that reform efforts can create administratively controlled "contrived collegiality." Collaboration among teachers, regardless of school reform, involves believing your colleagues are equal, working toward mutual goals, and sharing responsibilities, resources, and accountability (Friend & Cook, 2000). Authentic collaboration, if fostered in schools, can provide an environment for all students including LDS to make academic and personal progress. Additionally, elementary students who are educated within this environment bear witness to adults who model collaboration and problem solving. In the next section, I discuss the limitations of this study.

### Limitations of Study

While my intention was to conduct a comprehensive study with a mixed-methods design, there were several limitations. One limitation was the nature of self-report survey data. The quantitative data, save coursework histories, were based on participants' survey data. Researchers have historically criticized self-report data as being inaccurate because participants report on what they think the researcher expects (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Paulhus, 2002), but Chan (2009) argued that while it happens sometimes, it is not absolute. The negative relationship between survey, attitude, and RJ data, for example, is not consistent. Therefore, the accuracy of the survey data is unknown.

The second limitation was the validity of the survey tools. Based on results of the PCA, none of the three instruments fully captured the variables. This may be due, in part, to the small number of items on each scale (LATS=13 items, 3YO-Social Justice=8 items, 3YO-Practice=8 items). In addition, the 3YO-Social Justice and 3YO-Practice scales came from a larger 3YO study. The scales were not created with this study in mind, but rather a data collection tool used by Chapman College. The LATS, in particular, used a 5-point Likert scale, including a response as "uncertain," which did not force participants to take a stand (dis/agree). While there was a normal distribution for the LATS, results from the other two surveys were positively skewed. In all, the construct validity of all three surveys could be improved.

Another limitation was the small sample size of this study. Due to this sample size, results cannot be generalized to all Chapman College or teacher education program graduates. While data gathered through the qualitative portion gave rich description of nine Chapman College teacher education graduates, the findings are not definitive.



The final limitation involved the timeframe for collecting data. Time elapsed between the time the 3YO survey was administered and the completion of the LATS as well as the interview. The survey data were collected in the spring of 2007/2008/2009, while participants were completed the LATS and were interviewed a year later, in 2010. It is unknown whether or not teachers' attitudes or practices changed over this elapsed time. It is hypothesized, however, that the interview data would be more reliable give that the teachers are more experienced.

Future research could ameliorate these limitations by improving survey tools and adding the use of classroom observations, in conjunction with teacher interviews. While information gleaned from this study adds to the literature about the relationships between and among teachers' attitudes, coursework, and practice, more qualitative, observation data could delve deeper into these relationships and better explication the concept of reflection in action. Due to the complexities of these issues, an ethnographic study may be the best-suited method for future research. The LATS survey should be changed, to delete ambiguous questions and add more items to quantify teachers' beliefs. Due to the 5-point scale, including "uncertain," participants are not forced to take a stand; the removal of the "uncertain" choice is recommended. An expanded survey that more specifically addresses questions about practice is recommended. While the 3YO surveys provide some information, asking teachers more questions about their specific desirable practices within the context of the existing survey may provide more variability.

#### Recommendations for Future Research

While findings from this study suggested relationships between elementary teachers' attitudes, coursework, and practices, future research should delve deeper into

these complex relationships. Mixed method designs, including quantitative measures (e.g., surveys, coursework histories) and qualitative measures (e.g., interviews, observations, responses to a variety of dilemmas) would allow for a combined understanding of teachers' attitudes and practices. Further, replicating this study with improved survey tools and the inclusion of observation data as well as a larger sample is recommended.

This section includes four more specific future research recommendations. First, future research should examine teachers' attitudes about LDS before and after their teacher education programs as well as three years post-graduation. Integrated in this research would be the examination of the relationship between language coursework and teachers' attitudes. Depending on the structure of the teacher education program and language coursework, results from this research would provide evidence to support or reject particular structural or process strategies made within programs.

Second, research should examine in-service teachers' knowledge of language *and* special education policies, assessment, and instructional practices. This research could determine teachers' knowledge in both domains and, therefore, identify areas of strength and weakness. These results could inform programmatic decisions for teacher education programs and provide recommended areas for professional development. This knowledge, as well as teachers contributing attitudes may inform the way teachers' engage with the pre- or referral process for LDS.

Third, teachers' pre- or referral practices of LDS to special education should be studied. While Chapter 2 reviewed teachers' and assessors' practices, there were only two studies that examined teachers' referral practices. Based on the disproportionality of LDS

in special education, this area of research would allow for a better understanding of teachers' thinking and decision-making. And, it may uncover (un)desirable practices connected to making eligibility decisions. Connected to this research would include following particular LDS through the pre- and referral process. It is recommended that this research integrate the study of how teacher knowledge and attitudes may impact referral practices.

Another area of recommended research involves documenting the effects of PD provided to support in-service teachers' pre- or referral practices of LDS to special education. While teachers in this study reported having limited opportunities to receive such PD, this type of training may be occurring in other schools. It is recommended that schools document their engagement with this kind of PD. Then, this documentation can help inform other practitioners and teacher educators.

Findings from this study suggested that teachers' school contexts matter. Teachers' engagement in professional practices, like collaboration, reflection, and/or pre-referral problem solving, appeared to be dictated by the district or school context. Therefore, future research must situate teacher participants within their teaching contexts. To better understand school context, research could include observations of classrooms, faculty and school meetings, and professional development workshops. Incorporating context is essential for future research.

It is recommended that future research in these areas, continue so that the complex factors that inform teachers' practices are better understood. Specific research on teachers' attitudes toward language and linguistic diversity, teachers' knowledge of special education and language, as well as teacher preparation and PD will be integral to

the way we understand how teachers' educate LDS. Figure 6.3 provides a visual representation for future research. Due to the complexity teachers' attitudes, teachers' knowledge, and teacher preparation for linguistically diverse classrooms, researchers must employ differentiated measures and methods to examine teachers' practices.

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## APPENDICES

## Appendix A: Teacher Letter

Dear Teacher,

My name is Renée Greenfield. I am a doctoral candidate in the Curriculum and Instruction program at the Lynch School of Education at Boston College. I am writing with regard to my dissertation study on the way teachers make decisions for and about the linguistically diverse students they teach.

The major goal of the study is to understand the relationships between teacher education coursework, teachers' attitudes about language and language diversity, and teachers' knowledge. This study will look at these relationships and then specifically examine the ways classroom teachers make decisions about linguistically diverse students. This study is influenced by my work as an elementary special education teacher as well as my work in my doctoral program on issues related to linguistically diverse students with and without learning disabilities. For my seven years as a teacher, I have been interested in how to best assess and serve linguistically diverse students, especially when there are questions and concerns about accessing the general curriculum. While at Boston College and during my tenure as a classroom teacher, I have encountered many pre-service and in-service teachers who feel uncertain about how to serve linguistically diverse students and overwhelmed when making decisions about assessing their academic abilities.

For this study, I am interested in working with general education classroom teachers who teach linguistically diverse students. If you agree to participate in this study, I would plan to collect data from February through April of the 2009-2010 academic school year. There are two possible ways to participate in this study. First, you may elect to participate by completing a survey. Then, teachers who elect to continue participating will be asked to interviewed. There will be compensation at both levels for your participation.

Should you agree to participate, you can email Dr. Sarah Enterline ([enterlin@bc.edu](mailto:enterlin@bc.edu)), or 617.552.0368. Once you have agreed, I will provide you with a consent form to sign and return.

If you have questions about the described study, I can be contacted at 617.593.3210. Questions can also be directed to Dr. Patrick Proctor, my Dissertation Chair at 617.552.6466, or Dr. Sarah Enterline at 617.552.0368.

Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Renée Greenfield



## Appendix B: Teacher Informed Consent Form – Part I

You are being invited to participate in a research project that is being directed by Renée Greenfield, a doctoral candidate, in the Lynch School of Education (LSOE) at Boston College. The study intends to examine the relationships between teacher education coursework, teachers' attitudes about language and language diversity, and teachers' knowledge. In addition, the study will examine the ways classroom teachers make decisions about linguistically diverse students. You have been identified as an elementary teacher who graduated from Boston College's teacher education program in 2004, 2005, or 2006. This is why you are being asked to participate. You will be asked to participate in completing a 13-question, on-line survey, where you will be asked questions about language diversity.

This project is designed to protect your individual privacy in all published reports or papers results from this study. For example, I will assign all participants a code number so that even if someone were to gain access to any research data, they would be unable to identify anyone by name. In addition, you will be allowed to see ongoing data analysis to remove any sections of analysis that may seem potentially harmful for you.

If you would like a copy of the final report, you can request one by providing the researcher with an address to which to send a draft of the report. If after reading the report, you wish to discuss any concerns that may arise for you, I will be glad to do so. Also, with your permission, I would like to save a copy of your survey for future work I hope to do in this area.

If you choose to participate in this project, please understand that your participation is voluntary, and you have the right to withdraw your consent or discontinue participation at any time. Those who do participate will be entered in a drawing for \$250. You are also welcome to ask questions at any time. Further, should I pose a question that you would rather not answer, for whatever reason, you have no obligation to answer.

If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, any concerns regarding this project, or dissatisfaction with any aspect of this study, you may report them to Renée Greenfield (617.593.3210), Dr. Patrick Proctor, my Dissertation Chair at (617.552.6466), or please contact the Boston College Office for Human Research Participant Protection (617.552.4778).

### Certification

I have read and I believe I understand this Informed Consent document. I believe I understand the purpose of the research project and what I will be asked to do. I have been given the opportunity to ask questions and they have been answered satisfactorily.

I understand the above information and voluntarily consent to participate in this research.

Signatures:

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Consent Signature of Participant

---

Printed Name of Participant

---

Person Providing Information and Witness to Consent

### Appendix C: Teacher Informed Consent Form – Part II

You are being invited to participate in a research project that is being directed by Renée Greenfield, a doctoral candidate, in the Lynch School of Education (LSOE) at Boston College. The study intends to examine the relationships between teacher education coursework, teachers' attitudes about language and language diversity, and teachers' knowledge. In addition, the study will examine the ways classroom teachers make decisions about linguistically diverse students. You have been identified as an elementary teacher who graduated from Boston College's teacher education program in 2004, 2005, or 2006. This is why you are being asked to participate.

You have already completed a 13-question, on-line survey, where you were asked questions about language diversity. Now, you will be asked to participate in an interview. This interview will have two parts: responding to a case study dilemma and answering questions, about the special education referral process and teaching linguistically diverse students. This two-part interview will take approximately 60 minutes. During the interview, with your permission, I will take written notes and audiotape.

This project is designed to protect your individual privacy in all published reports or papers results from this study. For example, I will assign all participants a code number so that even if someone were to gain access to any research data, they would be unable to identify anyone by name. In addition, you will be allowed to see your responses to interview questions, and ongoing data analysis so you have an option to remove any sections of analysis that may seem potentially harmful for you.

If you would like a copy of the final report, you can request one by providing the researcher with an address to which to send a draft of the report. If after reading the report, you wish to discuss any concerns that may arise for you, I will be glad to do so. Also, with your permission, I would like to save a copy of your survey for future work I hope to do in this area.

If you choose to participate in this project, please understand that your participation is voluntary, and you have the right to withdraw your consent or discontinue participation at any time. As compensation for your participation, you will receive \$100. You are also welcome to ask questions at any time. Further, should I pose a question that you would rather not answer, for whatever reason, you have no obligation to answer.

If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, any concerns regarding this project, or dissatisfaction with any aspect of this study, you may report them to Renée Greenfield (617.593.3210), Dr. Patrick Proctor, my Dissertation Chair at (617.552.6466), or please contact the Boston College Office for Human Research Participant Protection (617.552.4778).

#### Certification

I have read and I believe I understand this Informed Consent document. I believe I

understand the purpose of the research project and what I will be asked to do. I have been given the opportunity to ask questions and they have been answered satisfactorily.

I understand the above information and voluntarily consent to participate in this research.

Signatures:

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Consent Signature of Participant

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Printed Name of Participant

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Person Providing Information and Witness to Consent

## Appendix D: 3YO Survey Questions

### Desirable Practices

#### Directions:

Thinking about your classroom and school experiences, use the scale A = Often, B = Sometimes, C = Rarely, D = Never, E = Not Applicable to rate the extent to which you have used the following practices in your teaching.

- 28. reflecting on and improving my teaching performance.
- 29. making decisions about teaching based on classroom evidence.
- 31. understanding educational plans and providing appropriate accommodations for students with special needs in my classroom.
- 32. making teaching decisions based on the results of pupil assessments.
- 34. understanding the concepts, principles, and reasoning methods of the subject areas I teach.
- 35. modifying lessons for students from diverse racial/ethnic/cultural/linguistic backgrounds.
- 36. using differentiated instruction to enhance student learning.
- 37. integrating issues of social justice into my curriculum.

### Social Justice Practices

#### Directions:

Thinking about your teaching experiences over the past year, respond to the following statements about your teaching practices using the scale A = Strongly Agree, B = Agree, C = Uncertain, D = Disagree, E = Strongly Disagree.

- 39. An important part of being a teacher is examining my attitudes and beliefs about race, class, gender, disabilities, and sexual orientation.
- 40. Issues related to racism and inequality are openly discussed in my classroom.
- 41. For the most part, covering multicultural topics is **NOT** relevant to the subjects I teach.
- 42. I incorporate diverse cultures and experiences into my classroom lessons and discussions.
- 43. The most important goal for me in working with immigrant children and English language learners is to assimilate them into American society.
- 44. It's reasonable for me to have lower classroom expectations for students who don't speak English as their first language.
- 45. Part of my responsibility as a teacher is to challenge school arrangements that maintain societal inequities.
- 48. Although I appreciate diversity, it's **NOT** my job as a teacher to change society.

Appendix E: Language Attitudes Teacher Survey (LATS) (Byrnes & Kiger, 1994)

Directions:

There are 13 questions in this survey. Based on each statement, please select one of the following responses: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Uncertain, Agree, or Strongly Agree.

1. To be considered American, one should speak English.
2. I would support the government spending additional money to provide better programs for linguistic-minority students in public schools.
3. Parents of non- or limited-English-proficient students should be counseled to speak English with their children whenever possible.
4. It is important that people in the US learn a language in addition to English.
5. It is unreasonable to expect a regular classroom teacher to teach a child who does not speak English.
6. The rapid learning of English should be a priority for non-English-proficient or limited-English-proficient students even if it means they lose the ability to speak their native language.
7. Local and state governments should require that all government business (including voting) be conducted only in English.
8. Having a non- or limited-English-proficient student in the classroom is detrimental to the learning of the other students.
9. Regular-classroom teachers should be required to receive pre-service or in-service training to be prepared to meet the needs of linguistic minorities.
10. Most non- and limited-English-proficient children are not motivated to learn English.
11. At school, the learning of the English language by non- or limited-English-proficient children should take precedence over learning subject matter.
12. English should be the official language of the United States.
13. Non- and limited-English-proficient students often use unjustified claims of discrimination as an excuse, for not doing well in school.

## Appendix F: Case Study Dilemma Protocol

### Case Study

#### Student information:

- 8-year-old boy; second grader
- Native language: Portuguese
- Attends your English-speaking school; lives in a Portuguese-speaking community
- Struggles to access the general curriculum

#### Timeframe:

- The student arrived from Brazil one year ago with his family.
- It is now March and the student has been educated in the general education classroom for the past year.

**Case Study**

English Language Proficiency	
<i><b>Comprehension</b></i> <i>Listening &amp; Reading</i>	<i><b>Production</b></i> <i>Speaking &amp; Writing</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Follows one-step directions</li> <li>• Understands basic sight words</li> <li>• Demonstrates limited vocabulary</li> <li>• Can sequence up to three events (beginning, middle, end of a story)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Uses memorized chunks of language (<i>My name is...; On the playground...</i>)</li> <li>• Using visual cues, can produce verbal phrases and short sentences (<i>I go bathroom?</i>)</li> <li>• Difficulty retelling stories (written and orally)</li> </ul>

Academic Achievement			
<i>Language Arts</i>	<i>Math</i>	<i>Science</i>	<i>Social Studies</i>
<p>Reads and comprehends at a DRA: 4 (early 1<sup>st</sup> grade)</p> <p>DIBELS Oral Reading Fluency: 21 WCPM (high risk: 0-69/2<sup>nd</sup> grade text)</p>	<p>Understands concepts of whole and half (preK-K standard)</p> <p>Can count to 10 and identify 1:1 correlation (preK-K standard)</p>	<p>Can identify the seasons (preK-2 standard)</p> <p>Can differentiate between living and nonliving things (preK-2 standard)</p>	<p>Can identify the school's name and city/town where it's located (preK-K standard)</p>

*Consider this student in the context presented above.*

*What do you think about this student?*

*What kind of action(s) do you take?*



## Appendix G: Interview Protocol

*The focus of this interview has two parts. First, we will discuss the special education referral process as it pertains to your work. Second, we will discuss your thoughts and actions about the linguistically diverse students in your classroom.*

### **Part I: Special Education/Foundations**

1. Describe the referral process for students with suspected learning disabilities in your school/district.

Probe: How is it supposed to happen? What is the “official” process?

Probe: What is the building-based reality? What is the reality for you individually?

Probe: What would you change about the process?

Probe: Do you feel like the process is effective in identifying appropriate students to receive special education services? Why or why not?

2. Does your school/district have a pre-referral team (e.g. Child Study Team [CST], Teacher Advisement Team [TAT])? If so, how does it work?

Probe: *If participants mention RTI, ask:* Discuss how RTI has impacted your referral process.

3. Does the process of referring students to special education differ based individual students?

Probe: Are determinations/decisions about linguistically diverse students any different than their monolingual peers?

Probe: Are linguistically diverse students assessed in their native language?

### **Part II: Linguistically Diverse Students**

#### ***Description of context/knowledge of learners***

4. Where do you teach? Tell me about your school community.

5. Describe the students in your classroom.

Probe: Where are your students (and their families) from?

Probe: What language groups are present in your class?

6. How many of your students receive special education services?

Probe: What kind and who provides the service?

7. How many of your students receive instruction in their native language?

Probe: What kind of instruction do they receive and who is/are the provider(s)?

Probe: What's your opinion about native language instruction?

### ***Instruction***

8. How do you design instruction to meet students' academic needs?

Probe: How do you design instruction to meet students' linguistic needs?

### ***Assessment***

9. In what ways do you assess your students?

10. Do you (in/formally) assess your students' language skills? If so, how?

11. What happens when you assess a linguistically diverse student and you confirm the student is NOT accessing the general curriculum?

Probe: What do you think about?

Probe: What kind of action(s) do you take?

### ***Collaboration***

12. Is your school environment one that fosters collaboration? If so, in what ways?

Probe: If you have questions about how to assess or instruct a linguistically diverse student, is there someone in your school/district you can access for support? If so, who is that person/people?

### ***Professional Development***

13. Describe the type(s) of professional development, if any, available to address concerns about referring linguistically diverse students for special education services.

## Appendix H: Description of Criteria for Rating Dilemma Case Study

		Stages					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
		Pre-reflective		Quasi-reflective		Reflective	
General Dimensions							
Cognitive Complexity	Knowledge is real, tangible, concrete, & singular	Knowledge is right or wrong; solutions are simple & easy.	Knowledge is true, false or uncertain; ambiguity is troubling	Knowledge is uncertain; issues are complex but there are no sub-issues.	Knowledge is complex, experience is limiting; evidence has many sides.	Knowledge is complex and evaluated across several points of view.	Knowledge is complex, analyzed, synthesized, and constructed.
Reasoning Style	Opinion <i>is</i> fact.	Reasoning is illogical; opinions & evidence are blurred.	Some logic; personal & subjective; what feels right.	Beginning to realize role of evidence; does not argue with evidence consistently	Reasoning is logical; explicit and consistent evaluation of evidence.	Reasoning is logical, based on evidence which leads to more compelling claims.	Reasoning is logical, strategized, generalized into abstractions supported by evidence.
Openness	Uninformed and naïve.	Other points of view are possible but wrong	Some openness; rejects beliefs rather than be uncertain.	Open to other views but stubborn or wishy-washy.	Sees diverse points of view; is objective about all points of view.	Examines many views; dismisses unreasonable claims, but offers no final answer.	Sees why others hold points of view, endorsed personal view but is open to re-examination.
Specific dimensions							
Nature of Knowledge	Knowledge needs no justification; right or wrong, is known; others do not exist.	Knowledge is absolutely certain or uncertain; different views are just wrong.	Knowledge will eventually be known; one answer is as good as another.	Knowledge is idiosyncratic, abstract, relativist; differences are discrete: no gray.	Knowledge is domain-specific, uncertain, and complex; difference relates to worldview.	Knowledge is judged qualitatively and although valid not totally defensible.	Knowledge results from rigorous inquiry and evaluation across multiple perspectives and is more or less reasonable and defensible.
Nature of Justification	Alternatives do not exist; evidence is not evaluated; knowing is egocentric.	Justify beliefs via authorities; beliefs not based on evidence but on what subject had been told.	Decisions are tentative; fact & opinion are different; questions authority.	Expresses strong point of view but no objectivity; uses incomplete evidence; authority is dogmatic.	Chooses point of view based on evidence that is judged qualitatively.	Assumes but does not construct point of view; evaluates strength of evidence and experts' claims	States opinions firmly, based on evaluated evidence; abstracts across and within domains; constructs higher-order thinking.

Note. Adapted from Friedman (2009) and Reflective Judgment Scoring Manual with Examples (King & Kitchener, 1994).